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Consumer Behaviour and Language:
A Study of the Spectators of the Montréal Canadiens and Montréal Alouettes

by

Daniel Robert Sweeney

A Thesis
submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research
through the Faculty of Human Kinetics
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for
the Degree of Master of Human Kinetics at the
University of Windsor

Windsor, Ontario, Canada

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Consumer Behaviour and Language:
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Abstract

This study was undertaken to investigate whether differences exist between the motivations of English, French, and bilingual-speaking spectators to attend professional sporting events in Montréal, and to examine whether they have different demographic profiles. The researcher also investigated the differences that exist between spectators who attend professional hockey and those who attend professional football games.

The Spectator Attendance Questionnaire (SAQ) was developed to study and measure the problem. In all, 581 fans were surveyed from those in attendance at a Montréal Canadiens hockey game ($n = 306$) and a Montréal Alouettes football contest ($n = 275$). Subjects were asked to rate the importance of 35 attendance factors on their decision to attend that game. Attendance factors were classified along the five "P's" of the marketing mix, namely: product, price, place, promotions, and public relations. A five-point Likert Scale was used to score the SAQ. Various demographic data were also collected.

The researcher concluded from the use of a MANOVA that no significant differences were found between the reasons why English, French, and bilingual spectators attend professional sporting events in Montréal. Despite the lack of research on language and sport consumption, the findings of this study are consistent with the conclusions of Bergier, Rosenblatt, and Laroche (1980), who found that French-speaking consumers did not significantly differ from their English-speaking contemporaries in Montréal in their attitudes and intended behaviour toward product brands. The results of a MANOVA statistical treatment allowed the

researcher to conclude that a significant difference exists between spectators' reasons for attending hockey and football games. A post-hoc analysis determined that the difference existed on the 'public relations' marketing mix variable.

The researcher concluded that significant differences exist between the demographic characteristics of English, French, and bilingual spectators at professional hockey and professional football games. Post-hoc analysis revealed that the differences lie between English and French, but not between bilingual and English, or bilingual and French spectators. Finally, it was also determined that the demographic characteristics of spectators of hockey differ from those of football for English and French, but not bilingual spectators.

Dedication

To My Family:

*My mother Naomi
My father Steve
My sister Carly
&
My grandma Eleanor*

The completion of this project would never have been possible without your unconditional love and support – for this I am truly grateful. Thank you!

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my sincerest thanks and appreciation to Dr. James Weese for providing direction, insight, encouragement and support throughout the research process.

I would also like to thank Dr. Victoria Paraschak and Dr. Bill Wellington for participating on my research committee. Your contributions were significant and deeply valued.

I would be remiss if I did not thank Robin Nease from computing services at the University of Windsor for providing timely, and much needed help with my statistics. You were always able to squeeze me in to your busy schedule on a phone call's notice.

This research would not have been possible without the cooperation of key individuals within the front offices of each of Montreal's three major professional sports teams. I would like to extend a warm thanks to Patrice St. Amour and Nicole Malboeuf of the Montreal Canadiens, Claude Rochon of the Montreal Alouettes, and Chantal Dalpé of the Montreal Expos.

Were it not for a truly awesome job from a truly awesome survey team (and truly awesome friends), I would not have been able to collect the data for this study. Carly, Tina, France, Sam, Ren, Pat, Rick and Vince, you are a big part of the reason for the response rate being as high as it is.

Last, but far from least, Jamie – my decision to return to Windsor to complete what was started was made far easier by your amazing love and support. I love you madly.

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CHAPTER I

BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

Professional sporting events have become an increasingly popular form of entertainment as well as an important part of the North American economy. In the United States, the Gross Domestic Product of the sports industry in 1997 was estimated at US\$152 billion (Meek, 1997). SportsBusiness Journal (1999) estimated that the size of the sports industry in the United States had grown by 1999 to US\$213 billion, making it that country's sixth largest industry. In addition, consumer spending on gate receipts to spectator sporting events totaled US\$22.56 billion (SportsBusiness Journal, 1999). The Canadian sport industry has also grown in size and importance. In 1995-1996, the direct and indirect impact of the sport sector in Canada accounted for CA\$7.4 billion, or 1.1%, of the GDP (Sport Canada, 1999).

The growth in popularity of sporting events as forms of entertainment has led to an increase in competition among sporting organizations for the consumer entertainment dollar (Pitts & Stotlar, 2002). In addition to more competition, managers of professional sport must attend to a myriad of other pressures impacting on their survival. Managers are forced to cope in a state where traditional revenue sources are declining at the same time that costs are rapidly escalating. Rising payroll costs, combined with a decrease in media revenues and gate receipts, have caused sport managers to examine new avenues for increasing revenues (Howard & Crompton, 1995). Some of the strategies that have been used

to generate additional sources of income include: the construction of new stadiums and arenas with more luxury suites, personal seat licenses and increased support from corporate sponsors.

According to Staudohar and Mangan (1991), game attendance at professional events accounts for approximately 68% of generated revenue. Therefore, attracting new fans to games, and increasing the rate that existing consumers attend, represent major opportunities for professional sports teams to increase revenue and profitability. In addition to the revenue garnered from the sale of tickets, increasing attendance is desirable for the revenue collected from the sale of concessions and team merchandise. Therefore, in order to increase the rate of consumption among spectators, it is necessary for teams to evaluate and develop an understanding of the various factors that influence consumers to attend sporting events. Understanding these factors, which includes the needs and wants of existing and potential consumers, is key to developing marketing strategies that will eventually lead to the satisfaction of organizational objectives.

Consumers attend sporting events for a variety of different reasons, and successful sport marketing strategies are rooted in the concepts of consumer behavior. As professional sport organizations compete with other entertainment media, it is imperative that sport marketers recognize the needs, wants, motivations, and attitudes of their customers in order to remain profitable and competitive. The appreciation and awareness of consumer differences enables the organization to manipulate and develop the mix of marketing strategies to influence targeted consumers to buy their product via attendance.

The purpose of studying consumer behavior is to develop a greater understanding of the needs and wants of potential consumers. Consumer behavior theory suggests that people have different needs and wants, and therefore are likely to consume a given product for entirely different reasons. The keys to developing successful marketing strategies are identifying trends and similarities within or among groups and adjusting these specific strategies accordingly.

In order to identify trends or similarities within or among groups, it is necessary to segment the consumer base, which is referred to as market segmentation. Consumers can be grouped according to a number of different variables. Segmentation is a commonly used technique in marketing because a global, or “catch-all”, approach employed to target consumers is ineffective at meeting the needs and wants of all potential consumers. Using the later approach, sport organizations would not be maximizing their profitability.

One of the ways of segmenting populations is along geographical and topographical bases (Garreau, 1982; Rooney, 1992). Garreau (1982) suggested that the division of North America, with the boundaries between countries, states, and provinces drawn along political lines, does not adequately represent the similarities and differences of the people within those boundaries. Instead, he proposed that there are nine nations of North America, segmented along cultural boundaries, each with its own web of power and influence, its own economy, and its own emotional allegiance from its citizens. The nations, or regions, were identified as: New England, the Foundry, Dixie, the Islands, the Empty Quarter, the Breadbasket, Ecotopia, Mexamerica, and Québec (See Figure 1). Each of these

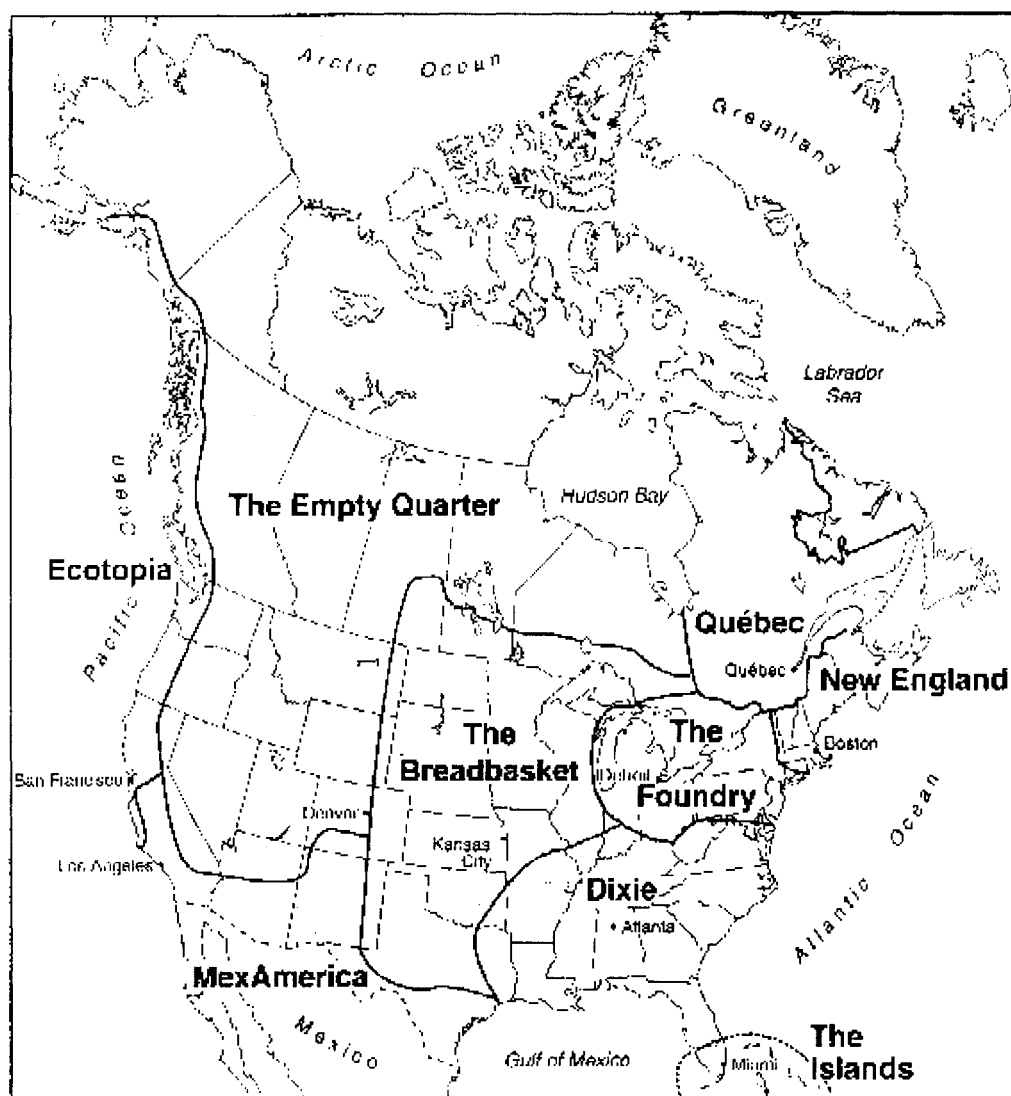


FIGURE 1 The Nine Nations of North America
(Garreau, 1982, p. Central Insert)

regions was identified as being very different from one another in the way that they look, the way that they sound, and the way that they feel. To be successful in any of these regions, marketing managers would be required to develop strategies based on the regional differences of each nation.

Rooney (1992) suggested that there are also regional variations in sport consumption, and that the implications of regional marketing are relevant to the sport industry. He identified eleven distinct regions of sport involvement and consumption. Although Rooney's (1992) analysis focused solely on the United States, his approach may also apply in a Canadian context.

Garreau (1982) and Rooney (1992) each highlighted the importance of employing a regional mindset with regard to ideologies and behaviors. Regional marketing strategies are an effective way of developing and implementing successful territorial marketing strategies. However, a problem with territorial marketing strategies is that they do not provide consideration for differences that may exist within a region, particularly those regions where two or more distinct cultural groups coexist. Borrowing on Garreau's classification, the nations of Mexamerica, the Islands, and Quebec each comprise, within their sphere of influence, very different cultural groups. A regional marketing strategy designed to target any one of these territories may fail to account for differences among groups within a given region, and as such, have the potential to be ineffective. Therefore, a dual-pronged approach to developing an understanding of the consumer base is needed: one to understand differences among the North American Regions, and one to understand region-specific variation in behaviours and tendencies.

Traditionally, studies on the reasons for attending sporting events have grouped attendance factors into four areas, namely: game attractiveness, economics, sociodemographics, and audience preference (Zhang, Pease, Lam, Bellerive, Pham, Williamson, Lee, & Wall, 2001). It is this researcher's belief, however, that an alternate method of classifying attendance factors is required, one that incorporates the elements of the marketing mix. The marketing mix for sport encompasses five elements (i.e., product, price, place, promotion, and public relations) that are used to satisfy the needs and wants of a target market and achieve organizational objectives. Stidsen (1975) suggested that because culture is of independent importance in shaping consumer behaviour, knowledge of cultural influences could have a significant impact on the 5 P's of the marketing mix. The goal of sport marketing is to communicate the benefits of sport spectatorship to potential consumers so that they consume the product. Responsiveness to the marketing mix is the primary way that this is achieved.

The marketing mix is a widely used and understood concept in marketing, and as such, the factors influencing attendance to sporting events will be grouped according to the five elements of the marketing mix for the purposes of this research project. Product attributes include such items as win/loss record, team history, division standing, playoff potential, star players on the team, and game violence. Price attributes are: the price of the ticket and the price of concessions. Examples of place attributes include: the atmosphere of the venue, good seats, the availability of parking at or near the facility, and distance traveled to the game. Promotion factors include: special promotions, coupon/discount, advertising, publicity and media

coverage. Finally, examples of public relations are team involvement in the community and public acceptance of the team.

The scope of this study is to determine whether there are within-region differences for the reasons that people attend professional sporting events. The area of focus will be the Province of Quebec, identified by Garreau (1982) as its own nation in North America. Quebec is a region that is primarily comprised of two distinct cultural groups, divided on a linguistic basis between English and French-speaking individuals. More specifically, the Montréal Census Metropolitan Area will be the site in which the research is conducted. This area was chosen as the site for this research as an overwhelming majority of Quebec's English-speaking population resides within its borders, and it is the only city in the Province with professional sports franchises.

Segmentation based on language for the purposes of studying consumer behavior differences has been the impetus of many studies, and French and English-speaking individuals have been shown to differ for a wide variety of consumption behaviours. To date, however, there have not been any studies that have examined the reasons why English and French-speaking Quebecers attend professional sporting events, and whether or not there are significant differences between the two groups. In fact, as marketers of sport begin to seek out previously untapped markets to sell and promote their products, it is only quite recently that researchers of sport consumer behaviour have turned their attention to examining the sport consumption behaviour of people of different cultural and/or ethnic profiles (Kwon & Trail, 2001).

This study will review the research on the various factors that influence attendance at professional sporting events and determine if there are significant differences between English-speaking, French-speaking and bilingual-speaking spectators of professional sport in Montréal with regard to these factors. Developing a greater knowledge of why consumers attend professional sporting events in Montréal will allow for a more effective application of strategies in order to increase attendance.

Purposes of the Study

The purposes of this study are: (1) to establish whether there are significant differences between the demographic characteristics of English, French and bilingual-speaking spectators of professional sport in Montréal; (2); to quantitatively examine the variables and factors affecting the decision-making of spectators to attend professional football and professional hockey games in order to uncover if there are significant differences among English, French and bilingual-speaking individuals in Montréal with respect to the examined variables; (3) to determine if there are significant differences between the reasons why spectators attend professional hockey games in Montréal and the reasons why spectators attend professional football games in Montréal, and; (4) to study the effects of sport and language on reported spectator attendance frequency. To address these study purposes, the following ten research questions were developed:

Research Questions

1. Do significant differences exist between the demographic characteristics of English-speaking spectators of professional sport in Montréal, the demographic characteristics of French-speaking spectators of professional sport in Montréal, and the demographic characteristics of bilingual-speaking spectators of professional sport in Montréal?
2. Do significant differences exist between the demographic characteristics of spectators attending professional hockey games in Montréal and the demographic characteristics of spectators attending professional football games in Montréal?
3. Do significant differences exist between the reasons why English, French and bilingual-speaking individuals attend professional sporting events in Montréal?
4. Do significant differences exist between the reasons why English, French and bilingual-speaking individuals attend professional hockey games in Montréal?
5. Do significant differences exist between the reasons why English, French and bilingual-speaking individuals attend professional football games in Montréal?
6. Do significant differences exist in the reasons why spectators attend professional hockey games in Montréal and the reasons why spectators attend professional football games in Montréal?
7. Do significant differences exist between the reasons why English-speaking spectators attend professional hockey games in Montréal and the reasons why English-speaking spectators attend professional football games in Montréal?

8. Do significant differences exist between the reasons why French-speaking spectators attend professional hockey games in Montréal and the reasons why French-speaking spectators attend professional football games in Montréal?
9. Do significant differences exist between the reasons why bilingual-speaking spectators attend professional hockey games in Montréal and the reasons why bilingual-speaking spectators attend professional football games in Montréal?
10. What are the systematic effects of language and sport attended on the product usage frequencies of spectators?

Definition of Terms and Measures

Acculturation

Acculturation is the multidimensional process of acquiring the cultural traits and behaviours of another culture (Pons, Laroche, Nyeck, & Perreault, 2001).

Attendance

A person is considered to be in attendance at a sporting event when he or she witnesses the event live and in person. Attendance is also known as direct consumption (Wann, Melnick, Russell, & Pease, 2001).

Back-Translation

A procedure used to translate a research instrument into other languages. In back-translation, one bilingual translates from the source to the target language, and another blindly translates back to the source. The researcher compares the original version with the last back-translated version to see if items on the instrument were translatable. If not, discussions with the translators are carried out to determine

what the reasons are for any found discrepancies among the translated instruments (Brislin, 1986).

Consumer Behavior

“Consumer behaviour is defined as a combination of the activities directly involved in acquiring, consuming, and discarding of goods, including the decision processes that precede and follow these actions” (Engel, Blackwell, & Miniard, 1995).

Culture

“The collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another” (Hofstede, 2001, p. 9).

Direct Sport Consumption

see Attendance

English Spectator

For the purposes of this study an English-speaking spectator is an individual in attendance at a sporting event who most often speaks English at home and/or primarily reads English language daily newspapers.

Escalator of Consumption

The escalator of consumption is a graphic representation of consumer movement to higher levels of involvement in a sport, as a player or a fan. Sport consumers are distributed in terms of their attendance or participation frequency across a continuum that runs from 1 through N, where N is the maximum number of events or games that can be attended. Depending on the number of games played

in a season; consumers are classified as light, medium, or heavy users (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2000).

Etic Research

A type of cross-cultural research whereby researchers identify culture-free variables that are common to all cultures and that can be directly compared in order to discover if any differences or similarities exist between cultures (Luna & Gupta, 2001).

French Spectator

For the purposes of this study a French-speaking spectator is an individual in attendance at a sporting event who most often speaks French at home and/or primarily reads French language daily newspapers.

Market Segment

Subgroups of consumers who respond to a given marketing mix strategy in a similar manner (Dillon, Madden, & Firtle, 1994).

Marketing Mix for Sport

The strategic combination (mix) of five elements called the 5 Ps. These are product, price, place, promotion, and public relations (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2000). Creation of the marketing mix involves the process of developing the right combination of the elements. The elements of these variables are manipulated to meet the needs and wants of existing and potential consumers, and to satisfy organizational objectives (Pitts & Stotlar, 1996).

Market Research

The systematic gathering, recording, processing, and analyzing of market data, which- when interpreted- will help the marketing executive to uncover opportunities and to reduce risks in decision making (Dillon, Madden, & Firtle, 1994).

Montréal Alouettes

The Canadian Football League (CFL) franchise situated in Montréal, Québec, Canada.

Montréal Canadiens

The National Hockey League (NHL) franchise situated in Montréal, Québec, Canada.

Sport Consumer

Sport consumers are those individuals who consume sport either through some form of mass media (indirect consumer), such as television, radio, or the Internet, or by attending a sporting event in person (direct consumer). The context through which an individual consumes sport is important as it may impact his or her response to the event (Wann, Melnick, Russell, & Pease, 2001).

Limitations of the Study

The researcher acknowledges the following limitations:

1. This is a descriptive study designed to explore and describe. This type of research does not provide causal explanations for results. The analysis is typically descriptive and interpretations are left to the researcher's and marketer's own judgment and experience.

2. The results of the study can only be generalized to the spectators that attend professional hockey and professional football home games in Montreal on the weekend.
3. The researcher was not granted access to survey spectators attending the games who were sitting in skyboxes / luxury suites.
4. Segmentation on the basis of language does not distinguish between French Canadians and French speaking immigrants.
5. The accuracy and completeness with which the subjects respond to the instrument and the psychometric properties of the instrument limit the quality of the findings.

Delimitations of the Study

The researcher has delineated the scope of the study in the following ways:

1. Only spectators of the Montreal Canadiens and Montreal Alouettes were chosen as subjects for professional sport patrons in Montreal.
2. The study involves only the stratified sample of spectators of the Montreal Canadiens and Montreal Alouettes attending weekend home matches on October 27, 2001 and October 28, 2001.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This review will be used to examine the information pertaining to consumers' reasons for attending sporting events. It will encompass: a) a review of consumer behavior theory; b) an analysis of the literature pertaining to attendance at sporting events; c); a review of the activities involved in marketing management, and; d) an overview of the Montreal market and issues in cross-cultural research.

Consumer Behaviour Theory

Consumer behaviour is defined as a combination of the activities directly involved in acquiring, consuming, and discarding of goods, including the decision processes that precede and follow these actions (Engel, Blackwell, & Miniard, 1995). Central to consumer behaviour theory is the process through which individuals acquire goods (Assael, 1998). A good is any product, service, activity, experience, or idea that possesses the ability to satisfy a consumer need and/or provide benefit(s) to the consumer (Kindra, Laroche & Muller, 1993). The process of consumer decision making involves the recognition by the consumer of an identified need or problem, the seeking out of information on methods to satisfy that need, the evaluation of alternatives, the act of purchasing the good, and the experience of the consumer with that good (Sheth, Mittal & Newman, 1999).

According to Holt (1995), the characteristics of a particular good do not necessarily determine whether or how it will be consumed, as different consumers and consumer groups can consume a given product in a variety of different ways.

Therefore, examining the factors that influence an individual to choose one good over another of similar function is the key to developing an understanding of why a decision is made.

Two broad and interdependent categories interact to influence and shape consumer decision-making, namely: individual differences and environmental influences (Assael, 1998). Individual differences refer to the internal dynamics of the consumer. It includes: motivation, perception, learning, attitudes, and personality/self-concept. Environmental influences are the external factors that impact on the consumer. They include key consumer reference groups such as family and peers, the consumer's culture and sub-cultural characteristics, as well as situational factors.

The study of consumer behaviour developed within the broader field of marketing. This area of study enabled a better understanding of how and why individuals make their consumption decisions. By improving this understanding, marketers are better equipped to predict the reactions of consumers to informational and environmental cues, and can make more strategic and appropriate marketing decisions, thus gaining a competitive advantage in the marketplace (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997). An examination of the decision-making process and its interacting influences are outlined in the following section.

Consumer Decision Making

Consumers must make a variety of consumption-related decisions every day. These can range from simple or routine decisions that require little thought or effort, to more complex decisions requiring a greater commitment on the part of the

consumer. Tuckwell (1998) conceptualized the decision process behaviour as a way of solving problems. Problem solving involves thought out and consistent actions that bring about the satisfaction of consumer needs. The following section will examine high versus low involvement decision-making as well as the decision process for consuming sport products.

Consumer purchase decision-making can be represented on a continuum from high- to low-involvement. The involvement level of consumers with a particular product will depend on a variety of factors. Involvement is likely to be higher if the product: is important to the consumer; is tied to self-image; has symbolic meaning; is expensive; has emotional appeal; entails significant risks; is identified with the norms of the group, and is of continual interest to the consumer (Assael, 1998). As a result of these factors, consumers are likely to spend considerably greater amounts of time and effort gathering information and evaluating product alternatives for high- over low-involvement product decisions. For example, the decision to purchase season tickets to attend the home games of a professional sports team requires a higher level of involvement than deciding whether to purchase a hot-dog or a slice of pizza from a concession stand at the game.

The process that consumers engage in when deciding to purchase and consume sport products, or other high-involvement products, involves several phases. In the first phase, a consumer recognizes an unfulfilled need. The recognition of a need is a function of marketing stimuli, past experiences, individual characteristics, individual motives, and environmental influences.

In the second stage, the consumer actively searches for information about products that can satisfy the recognized need. There are two types of information searches: internal or external. Internal information searches deal with the retrieval of previously acquired information that is already stored in memory. External searches occur when consumers obtain information from any of several sources such as personal sources, commercial sources, public sources and experiential sources (McDougall, Kotler & Armstrong, 1992).

Once the consumer has acquired information about the product and the variety of available brands, he or she must make an evaluation and choose from among the alternatives. Consumers must make their choice at a number of product levels, including product family, class, line type and brand (Mullin, Hardy & Sutton, 2000).

Once the evaluation of choices has been completed the consumer will then decide to either buy or not buy the product. Assuming that the purchase has been made, the consumer then experiences the product. The sixth step is the evaluation of the experience. In this phase the consumer weighs the benefits received from the product with the associated costs. If the benefits outweigh the costs than the consumer will most likely be satisfied with the product and will tend to repeat the experience or purchase. When the costs of an experience exceed the perceived benefits the consumer will either discontinue the activity or re-evaluate the experience.

Consumer decision-making is a complex process that is influenced by both internal and external sources. Marketers must understand the behaviour of their

targeted consumers at each stage of the process in order to develop effective marketing communications. The researcher will examine the internal and external factors that influence consumer decision-making in the next section of the document.

Individual Influences on Consumer Behaviour

A consumer's behaviour is influenced by individual, or personal, factors such as the consumer's motivation, perception, personality and self-concept, as well as his or her attitudes. Because these individual factors can strongly affect consumer decision-making, sport organizations must consider them when designing marketing strategies.

Motivation

According to Onkvisit and Shaw (1994), "consumer behavior is primarily initiated through motivation" (p. 38). Motivation is the driving force that causes a person to act. A more specific definition describes motivation as "the factors that initiate and direct behaviour as well as those that determine the intensity and the persistence of that behaviour" (Houston, 1985, p. 5). The initiating factor behind the drive to act is the recognition by the consumer of some unfulfilled need. Needs arise when there is a discrepancy between an individual's desired state of being and his/her actual state (Engel, Blackwell & Miniard, 1995). This state of disequilibrium causes the consumer to feel tension. Reduction in tension can only occur when identified needs are satisfied or fulfilled. To satisfy unfulfilled needs, consumers engage in a process of selection. The process involves selecting an appropriate motive, choosing a goal that will release the felt tension, and deciding on behaviours

that will lead to the achievement of the selected goal. Once the goal is achieved and the need has been satisfied, tension is reduced and the motivation recedes (Onkvisit & Shaw, 1994).

A consumer's behaviour is goal-oriented. Goals are the sought-after results of motivated behaviour. The selection of a particular goal is a result of learning and cognition. Two types of goals are generic and product-specific. A generic goal is capable of fulfilling a need from a general category of consumer products. A product-specific goal fulfills a consumer's need through specifically labeled or branded products. Product-specific goals are often considered "wants" (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997).

It is important when addressing literature on motivation and goals to make a distinction between consumer needs and consumer wants. A "need" is an unsatisfactory condition identified by the consumer that leads him/her to behave in ways that will improve that condition (Sheth, Mittal & Newman, 1999). A "need" is classified as being either primary or secondary. Primary needs are those innate needs that are required to sustain life. Also referred to as biogenic needs, they include the needs for food, water, air, shelter, and clothing. Secondary needs are needs that are learned in response to the environment. These psychogenic needs are acquired from relationships with others and from the individual's subjective psychological state. They may include the need for self-esteem, acceptance, autonomy, and affection (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1997). A "want" is a manifestation of a need. It is a desire to obtain more satisfaction than is absolutely necessary to

improve a condition. In the marketplace, consumers often use the terms interchangeably, perceiving their wants as needs (Sheth, Mittal & Newman, 1999).

Perception

The perceptual process is of central importance in the study of consumer behaviour. If motivation signifies the readiness of an individual to act, then perception forms the basis of how that person behaves and acts in given situations or toward specific goods. Perception explains why two equally motivated consumers behave and act in very different ways in the same situation. The actual reality of a situation or object is not important, rather, it is how the consumer perceives them that matters. To gain a complete understanding of how this occurs, the perceptual process must be examined.

Perception is the cognitive process by which an individual selects, organizes, and interprets the stimuli he or she receives from the external environment or from internal sources to form a meaningful picture of the world (McDougall, Kotler, & Armstrong, 1992). The following will examine the steps in the perceptual process and the method through which consumers become selective to cope with the onslaught of marketing communications.

The perceptual process has three steps, namely: (a) sensation; (b) organization, and; (c) interpretation. Sensation is the immediate and direct response of one of the five senses – seeing, hearing, smelling, touching, and tasting – to an object or an event in the environment. The object or event is the stimulus. Organization is a categorization process whereby the sensed stimulus is matched with similar object categories in one's memory. Finally, interpretation is the step

where the consumer attaches meaning to the stimulus, deciding upon the desirability and value of the accompanying object (Sheth, Mittal, & Newman, 1999). According to Sheth, Mittal, and Newman (1999), the characteristics of the stimulus, the context in which the stimulus is received, and the consumer's characteristics all influence the perceptual process and shape consumer perceptions.

Consumers are exposed to an overabundance of stimuli every day. In order to cope, several discriminating processes are employed, such as: selective exposure, selective attention, selective interpretation, selective distortion and selective retention (McDougall, Kotler, & Armstrong, 1992; Sheth, Mittal, & Newman, 1999). Because of the amount of information they are faced with, consumers act as gatekeepers to selectively expose themselves to certain messages and screen out others, depending on their needs and interests. In addition to providing a method for coping, selective processes form the biases that account for the different perceptions people can have of the same stimulus.

Personality and Self-Concept

Each person's buying behaviour is influenced by his or her distinct personality. Personality refers to the combination of an individual's unique psychological characteristics that lead to relatively consistent and lasting responses to environmental stimuli (McDougall, Kotler, & Armstrong, 1992). Personality describes the traits that account for the differences between consumers and lead to predictable responses to recurring situations.

The consistency with which individuals respond to recurring situations has enabled the classification of people into different personality types (e.g., self-

confident, adventurous, conscientious, solitary, idiosyncratic, etc.). By identifying the link between personality types and certain products, marketers attempt to influence consumer behaviour (Clemente, 1992). For example, the adventurous personality type is a likely consumer of outdoor pursuit products found in outfitting stores.

A concept related to personality is self-concept. Self-concept is defined as the sum total of an individual's thoughts and feelings having reference to themselves as subjects as well as objects (Malhotra, 1988). The purpose for studying self-concept in relation to consumer behaviour is to explain brand or product preference, purchase intention, or usage in terms of congruency of the brands or products with the consumer's self-concept (Malhotra, 1988).

Construed from a multidimensional perspective, each consumer possesses several self-concepts. While there is disagreement amongst researches on the exact number of the components of the self-concept, at least four dimensions have been identified: actual self, ideal self, social self, and extended self (Onkvisit & Shaw, 1993; Sirgy, 1982). Actual self refers to how a person perceives him or herself; ideal self represents how a person would like to perceive him or herself; and social self refers to how a person believes that others see him or her. Extended self deals with the meanings that consumers attach to their possessions. The four components of self-concept combine to create a person's global self-attitude. Global self-attitude is a conscious judgment by a person about the relationship between his or her actual self to the ideal or social self (Sirgy, 1982).

Self-concept plays an important role in consumer behaviour because consumers' personalities are often defined through the products they purchase and use. In other words, the consumption of products and services contributes to the definition of the self. Self-concept manifests itself in the daily lives of consumers in several ways: transcendence, self-monitoring, fantasy, and self-gift giving (Engel, Blackwell, & Miniard, 1995). It is up to the marketer to create a brand personality that is consistent with the self-concept of the target consumer (Clemente, 1992). An example would be creating an aura of performance and roughness around a product targeted to adventurous consumers.

Self-concept is reported as being an important and fundamental part of an individual's motivation to participate in and consume sport (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2000). Those who have a more positive self-concept are more likely to be committed to and involved in sport.

Attitudes

Kotler (1997) defined an attitude as "a person's enduring favourable or unfavorable cognitive evaluations, emotional feelings, and action tendencies toward some object or idea" (p. 188). This definition suggested that attitudes are comprised of cognitive, affective, and behavioral components. Applying the components to the study of consumer behaviour, Fishbein & Ajzen (1975) stated that the cognitive component refers to a consumer's knowledge and beliefs about a brand (e.g., "the 2001 Montreal Alouettes are an exciting team to watch"). The affective component represents a consumer's feelings or overall evaluation about a brand (e.g., "I enjoy watching the 2001 Montreal Alouettes"). A consumer's behaviour or action

tendencies toward a brand reside within the behavioral component (e.g., "I am going to continue watching the 2001 Montreal Alouettes").

Each of the three components interacts to form the consumer's attitude toward the brand. According to Solomon (1996), however, the consumer's level of motivation with regard to the brand will determine the relative importance of each of the three components. The concept of a hierarchy of effects, which is comprised of three distinct hierarchies, has been developed by attitude researchers to explain the relative impact of each component. The standard learning hierarchy of effects bases the formation of attitudes on cognitive information processing. A consumer initially forms beliefs about a product by accumulating knowledge regarding its relevant attributes, evaluates the beliefs to form a feeling about the product, and then engages in the relevant behavior. In contrast, consumers who engage in behaviors that are based on a very limited amount of knowledge, form attitudes through the low-involvement hierarchy. These individuals only form evaluations and develop feelings upon completion of the behaviour. In this hierarchy, attitudes are based on the behavioral process of learning. Finally, according to the experiential hierarchy of effects, it is feelings and evaluation that form the basis of consumer behaviour. Consumers act based on their overall feelings about a product, forming their beliefs upon completion of the behaviour. This type of attitude formation is based on hedonic consumption (Soloman, 1996).

Regardless of how they are formed, consumer attitudes can vary along several dimensions, specifically: valence, extremity, resistance, persistence, and; confidence. Valence refers to whether the attitude is positive, negative, or neutral.

Extremity represents the intensity of the positive or negative attitude. Resistance is the degree to which an attitude is immune to change. Persistence indicates the steady erosion of attitudes due to the passage of time. Confidence is the degree to which a consumer believes that his or her attitude is correct (Assael, 1998).

To understand the role of attitudes in consumer behaviour, it is important to understand how they develop and the functions that they perform. Attitudes are developed through a learning process over time. Attitudes arise from and are affected by family influences, peer group influences, past experiences (i.e., direct and indirect), product information, media sources, sales people, and from consumers' personalities (Assael, 1998; Green, 1995).

According to Katz (1960), attitudes perform four functions, namely: (a) utilitarian, (b) ego-defensive, (c) value-expressive, and (d) knowledge function. The utilitarian function helps consumers adjust to the complex marketplace by making it more probable that they will develop favorable attitudes about those brands that lead to the attainment of a goal, or that maximize rewards from the environment. For example, if a consumer's want for an increase in social status is satisfied through the purchase of season tickets to the local sports team, then the tickets are associated with goal attainment and a positive attitude toward the tickets is developed.

Ego-defensive functions are served by attitudes that protect a consumer's ego from anxieties and threats, as well as feelings of inadequacy and insecurity. These attitudes are based on rationalizations and perceptual distortions (Kindra, Laroche, Muller, 1993).

Attitudes that allow consumers to express their self-images and value systems serve the value-expressive function. The expression of such attitudes provides pleasure to the consumer because the attitudes expose some of the fundamental values he or she treasures. The self-image of an individual purchasing a hockey ticket that is in the "nose bleed" sections of an arena, for example, may be of a loud, extroverted, fun-loving person who likes to be expressive. These values may manifest themselves in the purchase of this type of ticket. Finally, the knowledge function enables consumers to develop attitudes that help them understand and organize large amounts of information in a complex environment. It is important to realize that although attitudes have different functions, they can fulfill more than one function at a time (Assael, 1998).

Another aspect of attitudes that is important for marketers to be aware of is the process through which consumer attitudes toward a product or brand change. Although it is a difficult task, a change in consumers' existing attitudes must occur when they are not in line with marketers' interests (Onkvisit & Shaw, 1993). The theories of cognitive dissonance and schema congruity can be used to help provide an explanation for attitudinal changes (Webb, 1999). Cognitive dissonance theory deals with attitudinal changes that result from a perceived discrepancy between a consumer's behaviour and his or her beliefs. Schema congruity theory deals with attitude changes that result from the failure of a consumer's expectations of a product or product category to live up to reality. Marketers try to understand the nature and variables involved in attitudinal change in order to predict future consumer behaviour and elicit (or prevent) behavioral change (Roper, 1966).

Environmental Influences on Consumer Behaviour

A consumer's behavior is also influenced by environmental characteristics, such as the consumer's culture and subculture. An examination of the role played by the consumer's culture and subculture is detailed below.

Culture

Culture has been described as perhaps the most abstract construct affecting human behavior (McCort & Malhotra, 1993). Many attempts have been made by researchers to present a comprehensive definition of culture. One of the difficulties of such an achievement, however, is the duality of structure inherent in culture. According to McCort and Malhotra (1993), "culture is both determined by its members and determinant of the characteristics of its members...an ever evolving force, simultaneously emanating from and acting upon its members" (p. 95).

Damen (1987) identified at least six notable characteristics of culture that are often integrated into definitions of culture, namely: (1) culture is learned; (2) cultures and cultural patterns change; (3) culture is a universal fact of human life; (4) cultures provide sets of unique and interrelated selected schemas for living and accompanying sets of values and beliefs to support these schemas; (5) language and culture are closely related and interactive; and (6) culture functions as a filtering device between its bearers and the great range of stimuli presented by the environment.

The concept of culture is derived from numerous inter-related elements. These include language, education, ecology, and socialization in a society's economic, political, religious, social and technological systems. Of the many

elements, language has a prominent role as an identifier and definer of culture (Usunier, 1996). Stross (1976) stated that language is the most important means of transferring ideas from one mind to another. Therefore, the language learned in the community where one is born and raised acts to structure and shape an individual's ways of thinking, social behaviour, views, and actions.

Culture is an abstract concept that exerts the broadest and deepest influence on consumer behaviour (McDougall, Kotler, & Armstrong, 1992). In order to understand the relationship between culture and consumer behaviour, McCracken (1986; 1989) suggested that culture must be treated as meaning, and that consumer goods act as the transporters of these meanings. According to McCracken's "meaning transfer model", meaning originates in the culturally constituted world, and through advertising, attaches itself to consumer goods. Marketers are able to assign virtually any meaning to any good by identifying the symbolic elements that represents the characteristics and cognitive constructs of a culture, and attribute them to the good. Once this has occurred, consumers are easily able to transfer the meanings of the good to themselves.

According to Hofstede (2001), culture influences behaviour through the manifestations of values, rituals, heroes and symbols. Values are considered to be invisible manifestations of culture, whereas the practice of rituals, heroes and symbols are its visible aspects (Hofstede, 2001). Culturally determined knowledge and experience is stored and expressed through these manifestations. Therefore, each group or society's cultural manifestations will be different. Values are "...centrally held, enduring belief(s) which guide actions and judgments across

specific situations and beyond immediate goals to more ultimate end-states of existence" (Rokeach, 1968, p. 161). A ritual, which is also referred to as 'symbolic action', is "a social action devoted to the manipulation of the cultural meaning for purposes of collective and individual communication and categorization (McCracken, 1988, p.84). Heroes represent "persons, alive or dead, real or imaginary, who possess characteristics which are highly prized in a culture, and who thus serve as models for behavior" (Hofstede, 2001, p. 10). Symbols are "words, gestures, pictures and objects that carry often complex meanings recognized as such only by those that share the culture" (p. 10).

There are several distinct characteristics that exemplify the concept of culture and help to explain the behaviors and habits of consumers within a culture. Culture is socially shared, learned, subjective, enduring and dynamic. Members of a group socially interact with one another and come to share common values and cultural practices which means it is socially shared. As such, they tend to exhibit similar consumption practices. Another feature of culture is that it is learned. Individuals acquire the culture of a group through socialization or acculturation. Socialization, also known as enculturation, is the process of learning one's own culture.

Acculturation is used to explain cultural change, or how an individual learns a new culture. It describes changes in attitudes, values and behaviours members of a culture exhibit as they move toward the standard of another group (Conway Dato-On, 2000). Culture is also subjective in that the values of a particular culture can be positive, negative or neutral at a given point in time or across cultures. Culture is enduring as it is passed along from generation to generation over protracted periods

of time, and as such is relatively stable and permanent. However, culture is also a dynamic and adaptive construct. It is a fluid concept that is continually evolving, as each generation adopts past traditions and values and also adds new characteristics.

As a concept, culture is also functional. Each and every society invents culture by creating their own set of symbols, heroes, rituals and values as a means to survive and grow. Viewed from this perspective, Kindra, Laroche and Muller (1993) identified four primary functions of culture, specifically: a) to establish rules of conduct; b) to set performance standards; c) to establish ways of interpreting environmental cues and interpersonal signals, and; d) to provide a society with vehicles or patterned solutions for solving its recurring problems. Kindra, et al., (1993) suggested that these cultural functions increase the ability of members within a culture to predict outcomes as well as reduce uncertainty.

Culture has a significant influence on consumer behaviour. The degree to which a product matches a cultural group's needs and values and fits into its life circumstances, will influence consumer preference, motivation and behaviour. Marketers who do not take into account cultural differences when planning a marketing campaign run the risk of encountering low product acceptance.

Subculture

Within each culture or society there are smaller subcultures, or groups of people, which share homogeneous value systems that distinguish them from the society as a whole. At the same time, these groups also adhere to many of the dominant cultural beliefs and behaviors characteristic of the larger culture.

Schiffman and Kanuk (1995) defined subculture as “a distinct cultural group that exists as an identifiable segment within a larger, more complex society” (p. 440).

Subcultural differences within a society exist on several categorical levels. Subcultures can be segmented according to nationality (i.e., French, Hispanic, and Japanese), religion (i.e., Catholicism, Judaism, and Muslim), geographic region (i.e., Quebec, Ontario, and the prairies), race (i.e., African-American and Caucasian), occupation, social class (i.e., lower, middle, and upper), age, and sex (Schiffman & Kanuk, 1995). In reality, any group that shares common value systems, beliefs and customs may be classified as a subculture (Assael, 1998). Understanding the motivations, perceptions, specific needs and attitudes of members of specific subcultural groups enable marketers to effectively appeal to specific segments of the marketplace.

Sport Marketing

Pitts and Stotlar (1996) defined sport marketing as: “the process of designing and implementing activities for the production, pricing, promotion, and distribution of a sport product to satisfy the needs or desires of consumers and to achieve the company’s objectives” (p.80). They suggested that sport marketing is a process that relies heavily on the analysis, planning, implementation, and control of carefully formulated programs intended to bring about voluntary exchanges with target markets, a perspective shared by Kotler (1997).

According to Pitts and Stotlar (1996), sport marketing is the most important function of a sport business. They identify that the rapid growth of the sports industry has resulted in an increase in the number of sport organizations competing

for limited consumer dollars. As a result, those organizations that survive are most likely to be those that are most proficient at managing the marketing process and meeting the needs and wants of their consumers (Stotlar, 2001).

The sport marketing management model put forth by Pitts and Stotlar (1996) indicates that there are several elements an organization must attend to for it to develop appropriate marketing strategies that will satisfy consumer needs and achieve company objectives. First, a company must engage in market research in order to acquire information about potential consumers. Next, in order to simplify and make sense of the data generated from the research, information gained about consumers is categorized, or segmented, according to consumer characteristics. Once a market is segmented, a company is able to develop strategies for the five P's of the marketing mix (i.e., product, price, place, promotion, and public relations) and target specific markets.

In the following sections the author will examine the nature of market research, the role of market segmentation in the marketing process, and the relationship of the five Ps of the marketing mix to the function of sport marketing.

Market Research

Huggins (1992) defined market research with reference to sport as “the systematic gathering, recording and analyzing of data about problems relating to the marketing of sport” (p.38). Once interpreted, such data helps marketers to identify opportunities and reduce the risks associated with decision-making (Dillon, Madden, & Firtle, 1994). Properly conducted market research forms the foundation from

which effective decisions are made concerning product positioning, price, promotion, place, and public relations.

The main purpose of conducting market research is to gain as much information as possible about potential and existing consumers in relation to their consumption of the product (Shilbury, Quick, & Westerbeek, 1998). When conducting market research, sport organizations seek to obtain two types of market data, general and sport-specific (Shilbury, Quick, & Westerbeek, 1998). Questions that focus on the demographic, psychographic and geographic information about consumers falls under the general category. Sport-specific questions are usually designed to obtain information pertaining to attendance patterns, reasons for consuming, and satisfaction levels with regard to the product or event.

Two data source types that marketers can use to obtain both general and sport specific consumer information are internal sources and external sources (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2000). Internal refers to market data that is generated from existing information within the organization (i.e., sales records, season ticket holder information, accounting records and general inquiries). External data sources are those originating outside of the organization. They can be categorized as either secondary data sources or primary data sources. Secondary data sources include information about consumers or a market that are already published or in existence. Census Report data is an example of an external secondary data source. Primary data refers to information that is generated by the sport organization itself. The most common types of primary market research in sport are

personal observation, the use of surveys and questionnaires, and personal interviews.

According to Shilbury, Quick, and Westerbeek (1998), the data generated from market research can: improve the flow of communication between an organization and its target markets; aid marketing managers to target and attract sponsors and advertisers whose products are likely to appeal to its customers; and facilitate the decision making process and the development of a marketing plan. In other words, sport marketing research links the organization to the consumer and the industry and helps the sport marketer to identify marketing opportunities, problems and threats (Pitts & Stotlar, 1998).

Market Segmentation

Sport organizations conduct market research because consumers have different needs, wants, geographical locations, buying power, buying attitudes, and buying practices (Kotler, 1994). Market research enables sport marketers to identify common characteristics among respondents and to group them together into target markets. This process is known as market segmentation. Market segmentation for sport is formally defined as “the division of the sport industry into relatively homogeneous segments” (Pitts, & Stotler, 1998, p. 106). The identification and grouping of individuals with similar profiles enables marketers to develop unique marketing programs for each target segment in order to maximize consumer satisfaction and market demand (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2000).

Numerous studies have been conducted on the segmentation of sports markets. Pitts, Fielding, and Miller (1994) developed an industry segment model for

sport that was based on Porter's (1985) theory of industry segmentation. Chang and Johnson (1995) identified four distinct market segments among New South Wales Triathlon Association membership in a conjoint study on choice-based segmentation. Turco (1996) examined the overall attitudes towards sport among the generation-X segment. Lascu, Giese, Toolan, Guehring, and Mercer (1995) explored the study of segmentation according to level of fan involvement in spectator sports. Fullerton and Dodge (1995) were able to identify no less than five distinct market segments of the golf market that were based on demographics, behavior, and attitudes toward golf.

There are a variety of ways that marketers can segment the spectator sport market. Marketers must experiment with several segmentation variables, alone and in combination, to find the best way to view the market structure (McDougall, Kotler, & Armstrong, 1992). Prior to segmenting a market, however, the marketing manager must be certain that the segment is identifiable, accessible, and responsive (Mullin Sutton, & Hardy, 2000). An understanding of these factors aids in the assessment of identified segments and is essential for the implementation and monitoring of marketing strategies.

Although there are many segmentation possibilities, sport consumers are commonly segmented on the basis of four segmentation areas (Mullin Sutton, & Hardy, 2000). The four popular approaches to market segmentation of a sport market are: (1) demographic characteristics (e.g., sex, age, income, geography and language); (2) psychographics (e.g., attitudes, interests, opinions, preferences and perceptions); (3) product usage (e.g., number of games attended, type of ticket

purchased), and; (4) product benefits (e.g., affiliation, achievement, status, health and fitness). Each of the four bases for segmenting sport consumers is predicated on the assumption that consistency in a specific variable may relate to consistency in consumers' wants and desires (Mullin, Sutton, & Hardy, 2000).

Product usage segmentation data are of particular interest to sport organizations as it identifies the frequency of use by consumers of products or services. Mullin, Hardy, and Sutton's (2000) "Frequency Escalator for Sport Attendance and Participation", depicted in Figure 2, was developed to provide a greater understanding of attendance frequency. According to the model, sport consumers are distributed in terms of their attendance or participation frequency across a continuum that runs from 1 through N, where N is the maximum number of events or games that can be attended. Depending on the number of games played in a season, consumers are classified as light, medium, or heavy users.

It is important to note that before an individual can become an existing consumer of the product, he or she must pass through as many as four stages of non-consumption. The stages are: the non-aware non-consumer; the misinformed non-consumer; the aware non-consumer and the media consumer. The promotional effort and expense required to cause existing consumers to progress up the escalator is considerably less than those required to attract non-consumers to consume the product. As such, a major goal for the sport manager is to move consumers up the escalator of consumption by increasing their attendance, while at the same time preventing existing consumers from "tumbling" down, or defecting from the escalator by decreasing consumption (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2000).

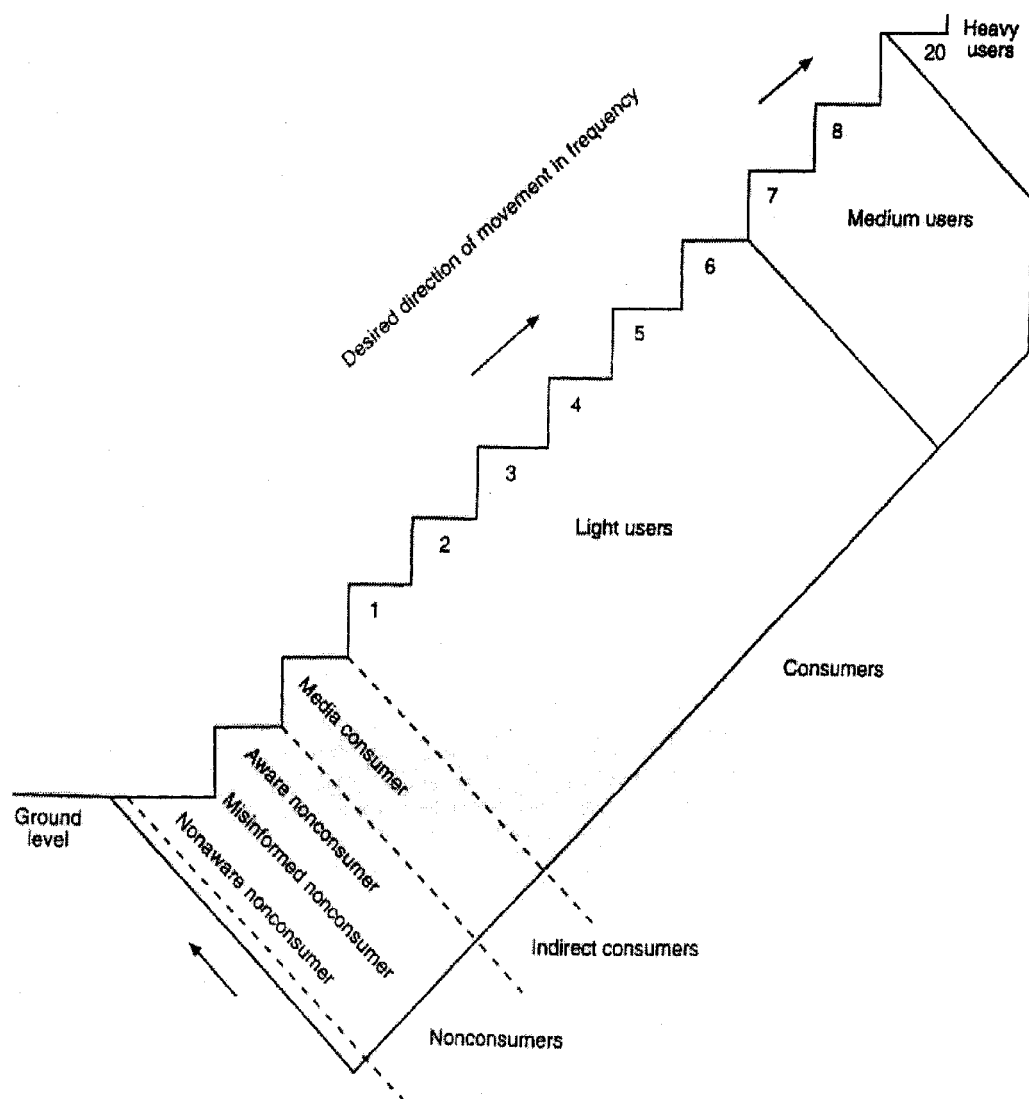


FIGURE 2 The Frequency Escalator for Sport Attendance and Participation

(Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2000, p.36)

Sport Marketing Mix: The 5 Ps

A vital component of marketing management in sport is the concept of the marketing mix. The marketing mix is defined as “a combination of the marketing elements that are used to satisfy the needs of a target market and achieve organizational objectives” (Tuckwell, 1998, p. 24). The mix is composed of five elements called the 5 P's, namely: product, price, place, promotion, and public relations. Many authors (McDougall, Kotler, & Armstrong, 1992; Pitts, & Stotlar, 1998; Shilbury, Quick, & Westerbeek, 1998; Tuckwell, 1998) note 4 P's in the mix, classifying public relations as being a part of promotional mix. However, Mullin, Hardy, and Sutton (2000) suggested that public relations be considered as a separate “P” because of the immense media attention that is given to sport, a perspective shared by this researcher.

The marketing mix consists of everything the organization can do to influence the demand for its product (McDougall, Kotler, & Armstrong, 1992). Sport marketers also manipulate the elements of the marketing mix to remain competitive, stay in business, and to meet organizational objectives. Pitts and Stotlar (1998) emphasized the integral role that the marketing mix plays in a sport organization's operations and planning:

The only way to do it is to offer products that will sell, at a price that will be paid, offered through a place where they can be bought, and made attractive to the consumer. In other words, the sport marketer needs to develop the right product at the right price offered at the right place and promote it with the right promotional methods. The sport marketer uses the elements to develop the right combination for target markets and in response to changes in the market. It is the responsibility of the sport marketer to control and manage the marketing mix (p.135).

Therefore, an effective marketing plan will consist of a combination of all the “P’s” into strategies designed to move a range of target markets up the escalator of consumption.

Product

Simply stated, the sport product is concerned with what a sport organization is trying to sell. McDougall, Kotler, and Armstrong (1992) formerly defined a product as “anything that can be offered to a market for attention, acquisition, use, or consumption that might satisfy a want or need” (p. 221). Sport products can be goods (e.g., baseball bat, soccer cleats, game programs), services (e.g., golf instruction, customer service, will call window), people (e.g., players, hot dog vendors, ushers, mascots), places (e.g., RFK Memorial Stadium, Regency Sport & Health Club, St Denis Centre), and ideas (e.g., rules, techniques, strategies). The sport product is a composite of interrelated tangible and intangible elements. Brooks (1994) conceptualised the sport product for spectator sport as consisting of tangible core elements and intangible affect dimensions. The core elements of the sport product are concerned with the event experience. They include the competition itself, the team, the participants, and the sport. In contrast, the consumer internally generates the intangible dimensions of the sport product. These include such things as the emotions, feelings and experiences that are associated with the sport product.

Mullin, Hardy, and Sutton (2000) proposed a similar model of the sport product. In their model, an additional level, entitled extended elements, was added. Extended elements account for those supplements that enhance the value of an

event experience. They include such things as tickets, programs, videos, music, and mascots. Combined, the core and extended elements affect the consumer's emotions, feelings and experiences.

Price

Tuckwell (1998) defined price as "the exchange value of a good or service in the marketplace" (p. 235). The value of a product is derived from its tangible and intangible benefits and from the perception a consumer has of it once subjected to other marketing influences (Tuckwell, 1998). Price is considered an important part of the marketing mix because it is the only element that produces revenue; the other elements produce costs (Kotler, 1994). Price is also one of the most flexible elements of the marketing mix, in that it can be most readily changed. Accordingly, these changes can be easily communicated to consumers because of the high visibility of price (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2000).

In the sport industry a vast range of product elements require pricing. These include equipment or apparel, tickets, concessions, memberships, information, and signage (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2000). However, price is often presented to the consumer in a variety of ways. Examples include: licensing fee, admission, registration fee, rental, endorsement fee, shipping and handling, bid, and ticket charge. Pitts and Stotlar (1998) suggested that the reasons for this are to give identification to the product through the price title and to avoid the use of the word price, as consumers might be sensitive to the word.

Price determination for sport organizations is a difficult and complex task. Sport marketers must consider consumer perceptions of cost and value, as well as

the organization's objectives (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2000). According to Pitts and Stotlar (1998), the 4 C's of pricing can help marketers to organize and manage the multitude of factors that must be considered when setting the price of a product. The 4 C's include: the consumer, the competitor, the company, and the climate. The sport marketer must be constantly aware of all of the factors involved in order to make educated decisions (Pitts & Stotlar, 1998).

When determining price, marketers must be aware of, and sensitive to, the concept of cost. For most sport spectators, the cost of attending an event is greater than the price of a ticket. In addition to the price of the ticket, costs to the consumer include travel, parking, concessions, and merchandise. The cost for attending a professional sporting event is commonly measured by the Fan Cost Index (FCI). Developed by Team Marketing Report in the early 1990's, the FCI tracks the cost for a family of four to attend an event. It incorporates the cost of tickets to the event, the price of concessions, the price of parking at the venue, the price of programs, and the price of merchandise.

Place

Place is an extremely important component of the marketing mix. Factors that make place such a vital consideration when attempting to move fans up the escalator of consumption include the location of the facility, its aesthetics and feel, the history and memories associated with the venue, and the artifacts that make the venue special. According to Mullin, Hardy, and Sutton, (2000), place "includes a number of ingredients that influence the attractiveness of the events held within –

from accessibility and other transportation-related issues, to design and layout, to amenities, to personnel" (p. 284).

To highlight the significance of place, one needs to look no further than Montreal's three major professional sports teams, the Canadiens, Alouettes, and Expos. The successes and failures of each of the teams are due, at least in part, to various place matters. For example, for the 1996 and 1997 seasons, the Montreal Alouettes football team had difficulty drawing more than 10,000 fans per game to the cavernous and out of the way Olympic Stadium, despite producing a successful product. The move to McGill's Percival Molson Stadium, a smaller outdoor venue that is centrally located in the city, resulted in a dramatic increase in fan attendance.

The Expos are suffering from the same illnesses that plagued the Alouettes. They play their home games at Olympic Stadium and also have difficulty drawing more than 10,000 fans per game. Although a variety of other factors account for the Expos lack of success at the gate (i.e., limited on-field success and constant threats of relocation or contraction), many believe that a new downtown park would have dramatically altered the current state of affairs.

The Montreal Canadiens have suffered somewhat as well since moving in 1996 from the fabled Montreal Forum, the team's home for the better part of 70 years, to the Bell Centre. Although the team has only recently been able to produce a quality product since the move, fans and media alike are extremely critical of the new facility. Negative comments about the facility include the lack of enough public washrooms, narrow hallways, and the distance of the seats in the upper bowl to the action.

In a study on the effects of selected stadium factors on spectator attendance, Wakefield and Sloan (1995) suggested that the consumer's decision to attend sporting events involves a substantial commitment in money and time. The authors proposed that because the purchase of a ticket includes an intention to stay in the facility for an extended period of time, that the amount of enjoyment derived by spectators from attending the game may be significantly impacted by the stadium environment.

Promotion

Promotion has been depicted as the "catch-all" P of the marketing mix, as it encompasses those activities that are aimed at kindling consumer interest in, awareness of, and purchase of the sport product (Mullin, Hardy, & Sutton, 2000). Professional sport organizations seek to generate profits. Promotional strategy contributes to long-term profits by communicating needs-satisfying attributes to consumers in order to stimulate sales. More specifically, promotion is defined as "a controlled integrated program of communication designed to present an organization and its products or services clearly to prospective customers" (Shilbury, Quick, & Westerbeek, 1998, p. 131).

The key component of Shilbury, Quick, and Westerbeek's (1998) definition of promotion centers on the various forms of marketing activity that deal specifically with communication. These activities include any form of advertising, personal selling, publicity, and/or sales promotion. The decision by an organization to use one or several of these forms of communication in combination will be largely dependent on the characteristics of the target market, the goals and objectives of

the organization, and the promotion strategy that is to be employed (Shilbury, Quick, & Westerbeek, 1998).

Public Relations

Whereas promotion encompasses the advertising and promotional strategies employed by an organization to position itself and its sport products effectively in the marketplace, public relations primarily deals with the organization's community and media relations. According to Mullin, Hardy, and Sutton (2000), the promotional efforts of an organization can be undermined and rendered ineffective if it does not also have a sound public relations program. The authors offered the following definition of public relations for the purposes of sport marketing:

Public relations (is) an interactive marketing communications strategy that seeks to create a variety of mediums designed to convey the organizational philosophies, goals, and objectives to an identified group of publics for the purposed of establishing a relationship built upon comprehension, interest, and support (p. 317).

According to Shilbury, Quick, and Westerbeek (1998), public relations is comprised of three critical activities. These include: the utilisation of data obtained from market research to evaluate the attitudes that publics have about the sporting organisation; the identification of public relations objectives and their relationship to promotion and marketing objectives; and the linkage of public policies and procedures with the public interest.

In summary, the marketing mix is comprised of those elements that a sport organization can control to influence demand for its product. However, decisions about the marketing mix are influenced by several uncontrollable variables, such as: the economy, competition, technology, social and demographic trends, and laws

and regulations (Tuckwell, 1998). The marketer who has a clear understanding of the marketing environment is more likely to develop and implement strategies that are effective at moving people up the escalator of sport consumption.

Sport Consumption

To understand the nature of sport consumption one must define and classify those who are involved in the consumption of sport, and identify the ways in which sport can be consumed. Lee and Zeiss (1980) suggested that the United States is a nation of spectators, as millions of Americans follow their preferred athletes and teams, either through the media or in person. This claim may also be considered appropriate for the Canadian population.

Lee and Zeiss (1980) employed the term 'spectator' to classify those who consume sport, as opposed to using the term 'fan'. According to Wann, Melnick, Russell, and Pease (2001) this is an important distinction. The authors proposed that sport fans are those individuals who are interested in and follow a sport, athlete, or team, whereas sport spectators are those who actively attend and witness a sporting event live or through the media. Although sport spectators are necessarily sport fans as well, sport fans may or may not be sport spectators or sport consumers.

Another important distinction involves the classification of sport spectators into two groups. As indicated, spectators can consume sport either through the media or in person. Kenyon (1969) referred to these two types of consumption as indirect sport consumption and direct sport consumption. The key difference between these two modes of consumption is that the direct sport consumer

becomes a part of the sporting environment and thus has the opportunity to impact the event (Kenyon, 1969).

Factors Related to Attendance at Sporting Events

Within the sphere of studying attendance at sporting events, it is necessary to determine the factors that influence and motivate direct sport consumption and to examine how these factors can be subdivided into groups that are based upon current sport marketing theory. Identifying those factors that wield the most influence on spectators' decisions to attend sporting events would enable sport marketers to rework their strategies in order to move existing and potential spectators up the escalator of consumption.

Many factors are involved in the direct consumption of professional sport. Hanson and Gauthier (1989) stated that these factors are based in sport marketing. Professional sport organizations package their products and develop their marketing plans in such a way so as to meet sport consumers' needs and increase fan attendance. Marketing plans are developed according to an organization's goals and objectives. As increasing attendance is a main objective of professional sport teams, an increased comprehension of the factors influencing attendance is fundamental to marketing professional sports (Zhang, Smith, Pease, & Mahar, 1996).

A myriad of variables are associated with the direct consumption of professional sporting events. Some of the principle factors within the current sports landscape are: the existences of star player(s), weather conditions, promotional giveaways, violence, and team success (Hansen & Gauthier, 1989). Team success,

or winning, has traditionally been identified as a major contributor in helping sport marketers to increase attendance and ticket sales to consumers' of professional sporting events (Demmert, 1973; DeSchrive, 1999; Green, 1995; Greenstein & Marcum, 1981; Hanson & Gauthier, 1989; Jones, 1969; Kochman, 1995; Marcum & Greenstien, 1985; Noll, 1974; & Schofield, 1983).

Although winning is considered an important factor within sport marketing, it does not explain attendance at Montreal Canadiens National Hockey League games. At the end of the 2000-2001 season the Canadiens had the highest average per game attendance for five consecutive years. They are one of only two teams to average greater than 20,000 spectators per game over a full season, achieving this figure in five of the past six seasons. Prior to the 2001-2002 season, the Canadiens had failed to qualify for the post-season for four straight years. It is apparent that the people Montreal were not going to NHL games because their team was winning or involved in post-season play. Other important factors must have been contributing to attendance at Canadiens games. These may include the history of the team, star players on the team, and the atmosphere of the venue.

Another reason why sport marketers should consider factors other than winning is that a successful team does not always guarantee an increase in attendance. Consider the case of the Florida Marlins major league baseball club during the 2000 baseball season. The Marlins were four games behind the New York Mets in the race for a wild card spot by the all-star break. In addition, they had the league's third-best staff ERA, the major league leader in saves, and the co-leader in steals. Despite the success on the field, the Marlins' average attendance

was 14,741 – third worst in major league baseball (Cannella, 2000). Marketing managers must take caution so as not to overlook factors other than winning that may contribute to the reasons for direct sport spectatorship.

In reviewing the literature on the variables that influence attendance at sporting events, it is clear that most studies have classified the factors that influence attendance in a similar manner. Generally, attendance factors have been segmented into four areas. Almost all researchers label economic and demographic factor categories the same, however, differences exist within the classification of the other two categories. Schofield (1983) labeled these factors as production functions and demand functions. Hansen and Gauthier (1989) labeled them as attractiveness and residual preference. Green labeled these factors as entertainment and environment factors. Finally, Zhang, et al. (1997), labeled the factors as game attributes and game convenience.

The four general categories that have been identified in the literature are economic factors (Hansen, & Gauthier, 1989; Schofield, 1983; Wall, & Myers, 1989), game or team attractiveness factors (Greenstein, & Marcum, 1981; Hansen, & Gauthier, 1989; Noll, 1974; Schofield, 1983; Zhang, et al., 1995; Zhang, et al., 1997), sociodemographic factors (Hansen, & Gauthier, 1989; Noll, 1974; Schofield, 1983), and convenience factors (Green, 1995; Greenstein & Marcum, 1981; Hansen & Gauthier, 1989; Marcum & Greenstein, 1985; Schofield, 1983; Zhang, et al., 1995; Zhang, et al., 1997). In the economic category, factors include ticket price, income, price of concessions, and promotions and advertising. Zhang, et al. (1997) reported that with respect to economic variables, ticket price is negatively related to game

attendance, while income, promotions, and advertising all have exhibited a positive influence on attendance. The category designated as attractiveness of game or team contains such variables as star player(s), division standing, team quality, and closeness of playoff race. Each of the variables within this category has been found to positively relate to attendance. In the sociodemographic category, factors focus on information about a spectator's age, gender, language, geography, and ethnic identity. The relationship that these variables have with attendance varies from negative to positive. The fourth category, convenience factors, deals with scheduling of games, game time of day, weather, and team history. According to Zhang, et al. (1995), convenience factors were often positively related to game attendance.

Researchers have studied numerous factors that are believed to have an impact on spectators' decisions to attend professional sporting events. Sports that have been the subject of the most number of studies on attendance include baseball, football, and hockey. For baseball, McDonald and Rascher (2000) studied the overall effect of promotions on the demand for major league baseball. Boyd and Krebheil (1999) investigated the timing of promotions on major league baseball attendance. Kochman (1995) examined the effects of the probability of winning on attendance. The author found that contests in which the home team had at least a 60% probability of winning, as determined by bettors, had greater attendance figures than those games with less of a chance of winning. In a study that examined the game-by-game attendance of one American and one National League team, Marcum and Greenstein (1985) found that the major factors affecting attendance

are day of the week, opponent, and type of promotion. Finally, in looking at spectators' reasons for attending Toronto Blue Jays games, Wall and Myers (1989) obtained similar results. They concluded that schedule, rivalry rank, and special events were all prominent factors that resulted in increases in attendance to baseball contests.

Researchers have investigated game-day attendance factors at professional football games. Bryan (1993) examined the variables affecting attendance for each of the World League of American Football (WLAF) teams. Factors thought to have had an effect on WLAF attendance were weather, the day of the game, and blanket premiums. Results from Welki and Zlatoper's (1999) study on attendance at National Football League games in the United States suggested that attendance is greater when the opposition's quality is higher and game score is expected to be closer. The researchers also determined that rainy conditions and higher ticket prices have a negative effect on attendance. In an investigation of the factors affecting spectator attendance at NCAA Division II football contests, DeSchraver (1999) confirmed that to varying degree, statistically significant relationships existed between spectator attendance and home team winning percentage, promotional activity, ticket price and weather. Wakefield and Sloan (1995) examined the effects of selected stadium factors and team loyalty on attendance. Recognizing that the purchase of a ticket to a sporting event includes an intention to stay in the venue for an extended period of time, it was hypothesized that the stadium environment would play a significant role in determining enjoyment of the experience. Stadium factors examined were stadium parking, cleanliness, perceived crowding, food service, and

fan behavior control. The results indicated that stadium design and stadium services directly influenced spectators' desire to attend games at the stadium.

There have been more than 10 studies published that have examined factors affecting hockey attendance. In these studies, the primary focus was on the effect of team performance on the attendance at professional games (Hansen & Gauthier, 1989; Jones, 1969; Noll, 1974; Zhang, Pease, Smith, Lee, Lam, Jambor, 1997). Recently, however, researchers have begun to examine other factors that may have an influence on consumers' decisions to purchase tickets to hockey games. Jones, Ferguson and Stewart (1993) found that game violence was positively related to attendance at National Hockey League games. Zhang, Smith, Pease, and Mahar, (1995) determined that spectators' knowledge of hockey affects attendance. The more knowledge spectators have about hockey, the more likely they are to attend games. Furthermore, the researchers observed that spectator knowledge of hockey is affected by several sociodemographic variables, including age, sex, race, income, education, and marital status. Research into factors affecting attendance at minor league hockey games revealed that the sociomotivational factors of salubrious effects, achievement seeking, and stress and entertainment, were significantly predictive of spectator game attendance (Zhang, Pease, Lam, Bellerive, Pham, Williamson, Lee, & Wall, 2001). Armstrong (2001) examined image congruency among male and female spectators of minor league hockey to determine if differentiated sport-marketing strategies targeted to male and female consumers was necessary. Finally, Zhang, Pease, and Smith (1998), investigated the relationship between broadcasting media and minor league hockey game

attendance. The analysis of the data indicated that viewing games on television, listening to games on radio, and the quality of television and cable broadcasters were all positively associated with attendance.

These studies are representative of the most popular of spectator team sports in a North American context. Studies on attendance have been done on numerous other sports in many other areas of the world as well. What is important to retain from the literature is that many factors contribute to the reasons for attending sporting events. Although winning is an important factor for selling tickets to the event, other factors cannot be overlooked. Marketers must devote attention to all of the 5 P's of the marketing mix. Although "product" is an important component of the mix, the research has demonstrated that price, place, promotion, and public relations also have a vital role to play in increasing consumers' attendance at sporting events.

Culture and Sport Consumption

Researchers have long viewed culture as an influencer on the behaviour of consumers (Conway Dato-On, 2000; Hofstede, 2001; McCort & Malhotra, 1993; McCracken, 1986; McDougall, Kotler, & Armstrong, 1992; and Rokeach, 1968). A review of consumer behaviour for sport literature, however, revealed that it is only in the last five years that research attention has been given to examining the sport consumption behaviour of people with different cultural and/or ethnic profiles (Armstrong, 1998; Kwon & Trail, 2001; McCarthy, 1997; Pons, Laroche, Nyeck & Perreault, 2001). Armstrong (1998) suggested that the low attendance rates of African Americans at major sporting events are a result of having been considered

as “a part of the general market and, hence, having not been considered a distinct segment” (p. 12). In a comparison of American and international students, Kwon and Trail (2001) examined the motivation of students to attend collegiate sporting events. While not examining the direct consumption of sport per se, Pons, Laroche, Nyeck and Perreault (2001) studied the impact of acculturation and ethnic identity on consumers’ orientation toward sporting events. Finally, in the only previous study to acknowledge that the language of the consumer may explain cultural differences in sport consumption, McCarthy (1997) provided suggestions for marketing sport to the Hispanic community in the United States.

Researching English/French Consumer Behavior

In this section the author will explore the current demographic characteristics of the Montreal market; identify the different approaches to conducting cross-cultural research; and examine methodological issues concerning the classification of English and French Canadians.

The Montreal Market

Sport marketers operating in the Montreal Metropolitan Area must be cognizant of the existing market conditions that affect the behavior of consumers within the region. The 1996 Canadian census revealed that 13 percent, or 426,600 people, of the Montreal Census Metropolitan Area (CMA) population reported English as their mother tongue, while 2.2 million people, or 67 percent reported mother tongue as French. Only one percent of the population reported both English and French as mother tongue. However, mother tongue is defined by Statistics Canada as “the first language learned at home in childhood and still understood by

the individual at the time of the census. This definition fails to account for those individuals who learned either English or French as a second language later on in life. To highlight the definition's limitation, the 1996 census reported that 1.6 million people, or 49 percent of surveyed respondents, in the Montreal CMA had at least some knowledge of both English and French.

Also, it is important to note that the figure on French mother tongue includes immigrants from other countries where French is the primary language. As of 1968, the province of Quebec has had control over the selection of the immigrants admitted to the province. In an effort to combat the declining birth rates of French Canadians and protect the existence of the French language, most immigrants allowed to settle in the province are from countries of French origin (Tamilia, 1988). Marketers and consumer behavior researchers must therefore be cautious when defining French speakers as being French Canadian, as this is not an accurate representation of that cultural group. An examination of classification issues will be addressed in subsequent sections.

Cross-Cultural Research

There are two approaches to cross-cultural consumer research that researchers can follow: etic and emic. The etic approach involves the comparison of one culture to another. Researchers identify culture-free variables that are common to all cultures and that can be directly compared in order to discover if any differences or similarities exist between cultures (Luna & Gupta, 2001). For example, researchers interested in comparing the similarities and differences of professional sport consumer behavior between English and French individuals on

attitudinal, behavioral and socio-economic variables would administer the same questionnaire to both groups in the appropriate language (Laroche, 1985).

The emic approach to cross-cultural research does not directly compare one culture to another, but rather seeks to provide an understanding of a particular culture by examining the attitudinal and behavioral phenomena unique to that culture (Luna & Gupta, 2001). Whereas etic methodologies provide culture-free measures that can be directly compared, the emic approach provides culture rich information about a culture, and thus comparisons are not possible. For example, researchers employing the emic approach would try to define either the English or French consumer, and attempt to create a marketing strategy aimed solely at that market. Usunier (1999) suggested that the emic approach offers more reliability and provides data with greater internal validity, however this is at the expense of the cross-cultural comparability and external validity characteristically found through etic methodologies. Therefore, the nature of the research question and the purpose of the study will determine which of the two approaches are used (Luna & Gupta, 2001).

French/English Classification

Regardless of which methodology is selected, researchers must be concerned with how they define the culture they intend to study. Laroche (1985) suggested that one of the primary methodological problems in cross-cultural research is the lack of a clear consensus on consistent operational definitions that classify different cultural groups. If the results generated from cross-cultural research are to be valid and useful, it is imperative that individuals be properly

assigned to their respective cultural groups (Tamilia, 1980). In the following section the researcher will examine the literature on the classification of English and French people.

Numerous studies have been conducted on the cross-cultural differences in consumption behavior between English and French Canadians (Bergier, Rosenblatt, & Laroche, 1980; Chebat & Henault, 1974; Laroche, Saad, Kim, & Browne, 2000; Lefrancois & Chatel, 1966; Mallen, 1977; Palda, 1967; Schaninger, Bourgeois, & Buss, 1985; Thomas, 1975). However, a clear consensus on a classification scheme determining who is French and who is English has been difficult to establish (Bergier & Rosenblatt, 1982). Measures that have been utilized to assign subjects to one group or the other include language spoken at home, mother tongue, language of returned questionnaire, language used most often, geography (Quebec/Ontario), as well as various ethno-cultural characteristics (i.e., religion, ethnic origin, family orientation). In a study reviewing classification methodologies for English and French Canadians, Bergier and Rosenblatt (1982) found that French and English consumers were often misclassified when any of these measures were used.

Tamilia (1980) explained that this misclassification is likely attributed to the fact that many of the respondents are bilingual. It is not uncommon in Quebec, and especially in Montreal, for individuals to speak both English and French throughout the course of a day, at home and at work. The 1996 Canadian Census reported that for the Montreal CMA, 1.6 million people had knowledge of both official languages. As a result, survey respondents are likely to be unsure of which group

they belong to, as in theory, they belong to both. Therefore, subjectively ascribing oneself to a particular group based on objective language criteria such as mother tongue will not provide accurate classification data.

To account for the bilingual nature of the market, Tamilia (1980; 1988) identified some alternative solutions for classifying individuals into either French or English groups. He suggested that researchers would be better served if they examined the socio-linguistic characteristics and mass media behavior of subjects. Knowing what language consumers use to read newspapers and magazines, as well as the language of radio listened to, may be more indicative of group affiliation. Supporting Tamilia's (1980; 1988) position, Webber (1993) asserted that despite the large proportion of bilingual residents in the city, Montrealers overwhelmingly choose a television channel, radio station, or newspaper in their own language or the language in which they feel most comfortable. In addition to assisting in subject classification, the knowledge that individuals tend to consume mass media in the language in which they are most comfortable is also valuable to marketers as it specifies how these consumers may be reached, as most markets in Montreal can be reached in either one of the two languages.

In a study designed to establish the predictive validity of ethnic identification measures, Bergier (1986) found four superior measures for classifying individuals. These are: (a) language of newspaper readership, (b) language most spoken at home, (c) language most spoken with friends, and (d) language of returned questionnaire. The findings by Tamilia (1980), Bergier (1986), and Webber (1993) suggest that researchers and marketers may be better served if they employ a

multidimensional strategy towards classification by using more than one measure to determine cultural group affiliation.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter will outline the procedures used to investigate the marketing mix variables of product, price, place, promotion, and public relations associated with the reasons for the direct consumption of English and French spectators of professional hockey and professional football games in Montreal. The chapter is presented in six sections which include: (1) Research Design; (2) Study Population; (3) Instrumentation; (4) Data Collection Procedures; (5) Data Analysis Procedures, and; (6) Pilot Study.

Research Design

This study is a descriptive study designed to explore and describe. The researcher investigated any potential differences that existed between spectators identified with the three segmentation bases, specifically: (a) English-speaking individuals; (b) French-speaking individuals, and; (c) bilingual individuals based on demographic data and the five "P's" of the marketing mix. The researcher also examined whether there were significant differences in the demographic characteristics of spectators of professional hockey and professional football games in Montreal, as well as any significant differences that existed in spectators' reasons for attending professional hockey versus professional football based on the 5 "P's" of the marketing mix. A commonly used data collection technique in descriptive research is the survey questionnaire, which seeks to determine present practices or opinions of a specified population (Nelson & Thomas, 1996). The use of a

questionnaire allows for a large sample size through the contact of a large population of patrons.

The language spoken of spectators in attendance was determined by three criteria, namely: (a) language most spoken at home; (b) major daily newspaper most frequently read, and; (c) the language of returned questionnaire. For "language most spoken" spectators were also provided the option of reporting the percent of both languages spoken. Spectators were classified as English speaking if the language most spoken at home was English, they most frequently read English newspapers, and the language of returned questionnaire was English. Spectators were classified as French if the French language was most often spoken at home, French newspapers were most often read, and the language of the returned questionnaire was French. Finally, two methods were employed to classify bilingual spectators. A subject was classified bilingual if he or she reported speaking the second language at home more than 25% of the time, or by not reporting one language of use for each of the three criteria. For example, if a spectator reported speaking English at home, but also reported reading a French newspaper and returned the questionnaire in English, he or she was classified as bilingual.

The researcher measured any significant differences between English, French, and bilingual-speaking spectators on demographic characteristics, and group product, price, place, promotion, and public relation marketing mix variables for the sports of hockey and football. In addition to examining linguistic differences, the researcher investigated whether significant differences exist between the sports of professional hockey and professional football with respect to the demographic

characteristics of the spectators in attendance, and with regard to the five marketing mix variables. Spectators of the Montreal Canadiens, Montreal's professional hockey team, and the Montreal Alouettes, the city's professional football franchise, were selected for this study because Montreal has the largest population of both English and French speaking individuals combined in North America (See Appendix A and B for complete histories of the two teams).

Study Population

The population for this study consisted of a stratified random sample of: (a) spectators in attendance at the Bell Centre on October 27, 2001 for the National Hockey League game between the Montreal Canadiens and the Philadelphia Flyers ($n = 306$), and (b) spectators in attendance at Percival Molson Stadium on October 28, 2001 for the Canadian Football League game between the Montreal Alouettes and the Hamilton Tiger-Cats ($n = 275$). Spectators of these teams were chosen as respondents because they represent professional hockey and professional football spectators in Montreal.

Instrumentation

Based upon the theoretical frameworks and instruments suggested by Green (1995), Hansen and Gauthier (1989), Schofield (1983) and Zhang et al. (1997), as well as through discussions with a university sport marketing professor, the Spectator Attendance Questionnaire (SAQ) was created to measure factors influencing attendance (See Appendix C and D). The SAQ consists of 5 subscales: product (14 items), price (4 items), place (8 items), promotions (5 items), and public relations (4 items). See Appendix E for a list of the variables with corresponding

question number on the SAQ. The five variables compose what is known as the marketing mix. From earlier instruments discovered in the literature, input of marketing executives with the professional teams involved in this study, and the results of the pilot study, a total of 35 factors related to the decision making for game attendance were identified as attendance factors. Based on Zhang, et al. (1997), a 5-point Likert scale ("1 = Not at All", "2 = A Little", "3 = Somewhat", "4 = Very Much", and "5 = Extremely") was used to discover the relative importance of each factor in relation to its effect on the reasons for attending the event.

Additionally, demographic data (i.e., age, sex, language, income, and education) and attendance frequencies (i.e., number of games attended this season, number of games attended last season, and planned number of games to attend next season) were collected.

Validity is the degree to which an instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Thomas, & Nelson, 1996). Reaves (1992) identified four types of validity: (a) content validity; (b) face validity; (c) construct validity, and; (d) criterion validity. The appropriate type of validity concern for this study's survey instrument is content validity. Content validity is determined by expert judgment. When experts in a particular field have developed theoretical constructs from their research, the content validity of an instrument must be assured. An instrument has content validity if most experts on the construct being measured would agree that all the important theoretical aspects of the construct are addressed by the measurement (Reaves, 1992).

For this study, expert agreement on the factors relating to attendance at sporting events was received from a university sport management professor, a marketing executive from a professional sport team, and previous research. Constructs from several studies were discovered in conducting the literature review. Green (1995), Hansen and Gauthier (1989), Schofield (1983) and Zhang et al. (1997) each conducted research on factors relating to attendance at sporting events. Although each of these studies attached different labels to the attendance factors, the researchers did group the factors according to specific content area. The categorization of these factors indicates content validity for this study.

Reliability is a vital element of the validity of an instrument. Reliability concerns the consistency, or repeatability, of a measure (Thomas & Nelson, 1996). It is the degree to which measures are free from random error and yield consistent results (Dillon, Madden, & Firlte, 1994). In other words, the more reliable a test, or instrument is, the more confidence the researcher will have that the measurement will give close to the same result every time the same property is measured (Reaves, 1992). Reliability is expressed numerically as a coefficient between 0.00 and 1.00. The higher the coefficient, the more reliable the measure is assumed to be. A perfectly reliable test would result in a coefficient of 1.00.

Two types of reliability measures frequently employed in the literature are: (a) test-retest reliability, and; (b) internal consistency reliability. The use of a multi-item measurement scale requires that internal consistency be measured for reliability. One of the most commonly used methods for establishing the internal consistency

of a measure is the coefficient alpha, or Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha was computed to test the internal consistency of the instrument.

This study includes English, French, and bilingual-speaking subjects. As such, the instrument was presented in both English and French languages. Back-translation was the method employed to translate the instrument from English into French. In order to check the accuracy of the translation, a secondary school teacher in the Quebec school system was approached to translate the instrument from English into French. The teacher is a bilingual individual whose first language is French. In addition, this person possesses a university degree in TESL (Teaching English as a Second Language). To translate the instrument back into English, another secondary school teacher at the same school was approached. This teacher is a bilingual person whose first language is English.

Upon translation of the instrument, only one source of confusion resulted from the comparison of the original English text to the back-translated English text. The English meaning of the French word "publicité" can either mean "advertising" or "publicity." By means of discussion among the translators, "publicité dans les medias," was determined to be a more accurate translation for "advertising," and "campagne publicitaire" a more precise term for "publicity."

Data Collection Procedures

Permission to conduct the study was sought from the marketing departments of the Montreal Canadiens and Montreal Alouettes respectively. Letters were mailed two months in advance of the intended date of data collection to Mr. Patrice St. Amour, Marketing Director of the Canadiens, and Mr. Claude Rochon, the

Director of Marketing for the Alouettes (see Appendix F). The letter's purpose was to inform and educate on the nature and purpose of the study, as well as to request specific preferred dates on which to conduct the research. Telephone calls were placed to each director two weeks following the mailing as a means of following up on the letter, and to seek verbal approval for, and permission to conduct the study.

The subjects for this study were Montreal Canadiens and Montreal Alouettes spectators. Data were collected from a general survey questionnaire administered to Bell Centre patrons on October 27 of 2001, and to Percival Molson Stadium spectators on October 28 of 2001.

Configured for NHL hockey, the Bell Centre has a seating capacity of 21,273 distributed throughout 120 seating sections. In order to ensure subject randomness, surveys were administered to persons sitting in aisle seats from ice level to the top of the building in four areas of the arena (i.e., N, S, E, W). Spectators sitting in aisle seats were surveyed for two reasons, namely: 1) to ensure that a stratified random sample of the population in attendance at the game was surveyed; and 2) survey distribution and collection was made easier as survey administrators did not have to lean over non-survey participants to administer the instrument.

The survey forms containing demographic variables, attendance variables, and attendance factors, were handed out to spectators in their seats prior to the commencement of the game, and were collected during the first and second intermissions. In addition, a cover letter outlining the purpose of the study and respondent instructions was presented. Eight university undergraduate students, graduate students and university graduates helped to administer the survey to

spectators. A group of two helpers were responsible for one area. One person in the group distributed questionnaires in the lower bowl of the stadium, while the other continued in the upper bowl. In order to ensure that the greatest numbers of spectators returned completed questionnaires, an incentive in the form of a draw for tickets to an upcoming game was presented. Providing respondents with an incentive for filling out the questionnaire increases the completed-survey return rate (Mullin, Hardy, and Sutton, 2000). Mullin, Hardy, and Sutton (2001) reported that a sample size with a 5% margin of error and 95% confidence level is 377 for a population size of 20,000.

At the time of this research, Percival Molson Stadium had a seating capacity of 19,500 distributed among 30 seating sections as configured for a CFL football contest. To collect the data, eight sections of the stadium were selected (i.e., N, S, E, W, NE, NW, SE, SW) and the person occupying the aisle seat from the field level to the top row in each data collection site was sampled. Survey administrators passed out surveys at the first row and worked their way to the last. The questionnaire was distributed prior to the start of the game, and was collected during the first half of the game. The same individuals who administered the survey to hockey spectators were present to administer the survey to football spectators. As an incentive, Alouettes merchandise was raffled off among study participants.

Data Analysis Procedures

The statistical procedures utilized to analyze the data are outlined in this section. The researcher used the SPSS 10.1 computer software package to

analyze the data. In addition, the AMOS 4.0 software package was utilized to conduct a statistical operation not performed by SPSS 10.1.

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was employed to address research questions one through nine. A MANOVA is performed when there is one multi level nominal independent variable and multiple dependent variables. Given the research questions posed and the intended data produced, the MANOVA statistical treatment was an appropriate statistical application. Research questions one and two examined whether significant differences exist in the demographic characteristics (i.e., age, sex, education, and income) of spectators of professional sport contests in Montreal. Research questions three through nine examined whether significant differences exist between English, French, and bilingual speaking spectators on attendance factors as related to the 5 "P's" of the marketing mix at the .05 level of significance. The MANOVA statistical treatment assisted the researcher in determining whether significant differences exist between the (a) product scores, (b) price scores, (c) place scores, (d) promotion scores, and (e) public relations scores of English, French, and bilingual spectators of professional hockey and professional football in Montreal.

To explore the first research question, a one-way Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was computed on English, French, and bilingual-speaking spectators for the overall study sample, the hockey sample, and the football sample. A one-way MANOVA is performed when there is one multi-level nominal independent variable, and multiple dependent variables. Language spoken represents the independent variable, while the four demographic variables represent

the dependent variable. ANOVA's form linear combinations of all dependant variables, which best discriminate among the groups in the particular experimental design. For this type of experimental design, a MANOVA is preferred over running separate ANOVA's for each dependant variable for two main reasons, namely: (a) the dependent variables are almost always correlated with one another other, thus, findings from separate ANOVA's are redundant and difficult to integrate, and; (b) the odds of finding something significant simply because of chance rises with repeated use of the same sample of data and on atrophying of the alpha level (Weinberg & Goldberg, 1990). Scheffe post-hoc tests ($p < .05$) were calculated to identify the source of differences where present.

The second research question studied whether significant differences exist in the demographic characteristics of spectators attending professional hockey games versus those attending professional football games in Montreal. Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) tests were computed to investigate the multivariate effects of sport attended on four demographic variables (i.e., age, sex, education, and income) for the overall study sample, English, French and bilingual-speaking spectators.

The third research question investigated whether significant differences exist in the reasons why English, French and bilingual-speaking individuals attend professional sporting events in Montreal. In order to answer this question, a one-way MANOVA was calculated on the attendance factor scores for English-speaking spectators of professional hockey and professional football, and the attendance

factor scores for French-speaking spectators of professional hockey and professional football.

The fourth research question sought to determine whether significant differences exist in the reasons why English, French, and bilingual speaking individuals attend professional hockey games in Montreal. A MANOVA was used to compare the attendance factor scores for English, French and bilingual hockey spectators.

The fifth question examined whether there were any significant differences that exist in the reasons why English, French, and bilingual speaking individuals attend professional football games in Montreal. The researcher used a MANOVA to statistically determine if significant attendance variable scores differed for English, French, and bilingual hockey spectators. The MANOVA results determine the effects of language on the attendance variables of product, price, place, promotion, and public relations.

The sixth research question examined whether there were any significant differences in the reasons why spectators attend professional hockey and professional football games in Montreal. A MANOVA statistical procedure was computed to determine whether significant differences existed between the five attendance variable scores for hockey and the five attendance variable scores for football for English, French, and bilingual spectators.

The seventh research question sought to determine if significant differences exist in the reasons why English-speaking spectators attend professional hockey and professional football games in Montreal. A MANOVA was computed to test

whether significant differences existed between the five hockey attendance variable scores and the five football attendance variable scores for English respondents.

The eighth research question investigated whether significant differences exist in the reasons why French-speaking spectators attend professional hockey and professional football games in Montreal. A one-way MANOVA was calculated on the five attendance variable scores for French hockey spectators and the five attendance variable scores for French football spectators to determine if there is a statistically significant difference between groups.

The ninth research question investigated whether significant differences exist in the reasons why bilingual-speaking spectators attend professional hockey and professional football games in Montreal. A MANOVA was computed to compare the five attendance variable scores for hockey to the five attendance variable scores for football for respondents who reported to be bilingual.

The tenth research question investigated the effect of language and sport attended on the attendance frequencies of spectators for the 2000-2001, 2001-2002, and 2002-2003 Montreal Canadiens hockey seasons; and for the 2000, 2001, and 2002 Montreal Alouettes Football seasons. To answer this question, a 2x3 factorial design was computed. A factorial design is computed to investigate the effects of one independent variable on the dependent variable, in conjunction with one or more additional independent variables. Using a factorial design, the researcher is able to study the effects of the individual independent variables, or the main effects, as well as the interaction of two or more independent variables, referred to as the interaction effects.

Attendance frequency is represented by non-user, light, medium, and heavy user-rates (Mullin, Sutton, & Hardy, 2000). National Hockey League teams play 41 regular season home games per hockey calendar year. Non-users are those who do not attend any games, light attend between 1 and 4 games per season; medium users attend between 5 and 19 games per season; and heavy users attend at least 20 home games per season. Canadian Football League teams play nine regular season home games per football calendar year. A light user attends only one game during the season. A medium user is in attendance for between 2 and 4 games, and a heavy attends at least five games over the course of the season.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted using spectators of the Montreal Expos Baseball Club. The Expos are the Major League Baseball team in the city of Montreal. The Expos spectators were chosen as subjects for the pilot study for several reasons. First of all, they represent consumers of a professional sport in Montreal. Second, the Expos are situated in the same market as the Canadiens and Alouettes, and are therefore likely to attract similar demographics. Third, of the three major professional sports teams in the city of Montreal, the Expos consistently attract much fewer spectators to their games than do the other two teams.

Permission to conduct the pilot study was obtained by Ms. Chantal Dalpé, Marketing Director of the Montreal Expos Baseball Club, Ltd. A letter was forwarded to Ms. Dalpé outlining the basic objectives of the pilot test. The subjects for the pilot study were a stratified random sample of spectators in attendance at the Olympic Stadium in Montreal for the September 23, 2001 Major League Baseball game

between the Colorado Rockies and the Montreal Expos. A crowd in excess of 10,000 spectators was in attendance for the contest. Configured for baseball, Olympic Stadium has a seating capacity in excess of 45,000. Because of the small crowd that was in attendance, a decision on which sections of the stadium to administer the survey to was made during the first and second inning of the game. A team of five university students and graduates administered the survey to five different areas of the stadium between the second and third, and third and fourth innings of the game. Randomness was ensured by handing out surveys only to those spectators sitting in an aisle seat in the selected seating sections. In total, 250 surveys were handed out, of which 170 completed packages were returned, for a return rate of 68.2%. As an incentive for filling out the questionnaire, five autographed baseballs were drawn among the respondents. Results of the pilot study are presented in Appendix G.

The alpha coefficient of the pilot study for the 32 attendance factors was .9125, indicating a high degree of reliability. The internal consistencies for each of the five sub-scales were also measured using the Cronbach alpha test. The alpha coefficients for product ($\alpha = .8342$), place ($\alpha = .7273$), and promotions ($\alpha = .7654$), indicated a high degree of reliability. The alpha coefficient for price ($\alpha = .1657$) indicated a low degree of reliability, while the alpha coefficient for public relations ($\alpha = .6417$) was below the accepted level of .70 put forth by Nunally (1978).

To increase the reliability of the price sub-scale, the price of merchandise and the price of parking were added as factors of price. Together with ticket price and concession price, the four variables comprise the Fan Cost Index, a measure used

to measure the costs associated with attending a professional sporting event. A major change to the instrument involved the expansion of the “price” variable to include more than two factors. As such, these factors were included under the price variable for the research. To increase the reliability of the public-relations sub-scale, the factors “player involvement in the community” and “public image of the team” were added to the instrument.

Using the statistical software package AMOS 4.0, a confirmatory factor analysis was performed on the pilot study data to examine the interrelationships among variables. Z scores were calculated using a two-tailed hypothesis test, with an alpha of .05. The critical z score for a two-tailed test at the .05 level is ± 1.96 . Z scores larger than the critical value are statistically significant at the chosen alpha level (Cohen, 2001). The critical Z scores for attendance factors are reported in Appendix G. The results of the confirmatory factor analysis indicate that the attendance factors “game violence” ($z = 1.27$), and “day of the week” ($z = 1.54$) are not statistically significant. These factors have been extracted from the model and will not appear on the survey questionnaire. The internal consistency of the product variable was retested without the two extracted factors and scored an alpha coefficient of .8487, indicating a high degree of reliability. Confirmatory factor analysis is a statistical application that provides a series of possible tests for a hypothesized factor structure. The hypothesized factor structure is the result of a strong theory or past data that allow for the specification of a unique factor resolution (Gorsuch, 1983). This statistical procedure is employed as a method for reducing the number of variables and to evaluate construct validity. Confirmatory

factor analysis is used when the researcher begins with a predetermined factor model that is based on a strong theoretical and/or empirical foundation.

Confirmatory factor analysis was used for this study because it provides explicit hypothesis testing for factor analytic problems. Exploratory analysis was not used because this application is only useful when no prior analyses have been conducted.

The pilot study provided an opportunity to evaluate and modify all methods, instructions, instruments, and data collection procedures.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter contains the results of the statistical treatments administered to the quantitative data produced by the data collection procedures. The quantitative data were obtained by using an instrument designed and validated by the researcher to measure whether or not there is a significant difference in the behaviours of English, French, and bilingual consumers attending professional sporting events in Montreal. The instrument was also designed to analyze whether there are any differences in attendance behaviors for spectators of professional hockey versus spectators of professional football in Montreal.

This chapter is presented in five sections, which include: (1) Sampling Statistics; (2) Psychometric Properties of the Instrument; (3) Descriptive Statistics; (4) Spectator Demographics; and (5) Research Questions.

Sampling Statistics

An overall return rate of 68% of complete data sets was realized from the 450 (n=306) Spectator Attendance Questionnaire (SAQ) surveys distributed to spectators of professional hockey at the Molson Centre in Montreal. An overall return rate of 61.1% of complete data sets was realized from the 450 (n = 275) surveys distributed to spectators of professional football at Percival Molson Stadium in Montreal. Based on Hansen and Gauthier's (1989) reported return rate of 46%, and the 42.83% return rate reported by Zhang, et. al. (2000), the return rate for this study was considered strong.

Psychometric Properties of the Instrument

Based on concepts generated from a review of previous research, the SAQ was developed to measure the variables and factors influencing attendance at professional sporting events. This consisted of five variables and 35 factors, namely: product (fourteen factors), price (four factors), place (eight factors), promotion (five factors), and public relations (four factors). A five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all influential) to 5 (extremely influential) was used to examine the magnitude of influence each variable and factor exerts on decision to attend the event.

Cronbach alpha inter-item reliability coefficients were calculated to assess the internal consistency of the Spectator Attendance Questionnaire (SAQ). The results are presented in Table 1. Inter-item reliability computations were computed on the five scales of attendance factors for the SAQ. The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients were calculated to demonstrate the reliability of the SAQ. An alpha coefficient equal to or above 0.70 is generally considered an acceptable measurement (Nunally, 1978). Each of the five scales of attendance factors produced an acceptable level of reliability, therefore, the SAQ was deemed to be internally consistent.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics are used to classify and summarize numerical data, and to describe the basic features of the data in a study. They provide simple summaries about the sample and the measures, and are used to present quantitative descriptions in a manageable form. Descriptive statistics are typically

Table 1Internal Consistency for the Spectator Attendance Questionnaire (SAQ)

	<u>Cronbach's alpha</u>
<u>Indices</u>	
1. Product Attendance Factors	0.86
2. Place Attendance Factors	0.81
3. Promotions Attendance Factors	0.84
4. Price Attendance Factors	0.71
5. Public Relations Attendance Factors	0.83
Total Attendance Factor Score	0.94

distinguished from inferential statistics. Whereas descriptive statistics are used to describe occurrences in the data and provide a summary that may enable comparisons across groups, inferential statistics aid the researcher in reaching conclusions that extend beyond the immediate data alone. Inferential statistics are used to make judgments on the probability that an observed difference between groups is a dependable one versus one that might have happened by chance in a study.

Descriptive statistics are numbers computed from data that describe the data's central tendency and variability (Diekhoff, 1992). The means and standard deviations of the five attendance variables for the overall sample by language are represented in Table 2. The means and standard deviations of the 35 attendance factors by language are represented in Table 3 for hockey and Table 4 for football.

Spectator Demographics

Procedures from the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS 10.1) were utilized to conduct the statistical analyses. Descriptive statistics were calculated for each of the categorical sociodemographic variables. Spectator demographics were collected for language, age, sex, income, and education level variables for the overall study sample (See Table 5), for the overall study sample by language spoken (See Table 6), and for the overall study sample by sport attended (See Table 7). The demographic profile of spectators of professional hockey segmented by language group is represented in Table 8, and the demographic profile of spectators of professional football segmented by language group is represented in Table 9.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations of Attendance Variables for Overall Sample by Language Spoken

	Sample n = 581	English n = 120	French n = 388	Bilingual n = 73
<u>Indices</u>				
1. Product	2.98 (0.72)	2.86 (0.73)	3.01 (0.70)	3.02 (0.76)
2. Place	2.03 (0.83)	2.21 (0.80)	2.42 (0.83)	2.41 (0.86)
3. Promotions	2.38 (0.86)	1.73 (0.80)	1.97 (0.85)	2.05 (0.97)
4. Price	1.93 (0.88)	1.85 (0.80)	2.05 (0.89)	2.20 (0.90)
5. Public Relations	2.78 (1.06)	2.49 (1.07)	2.86 (1.04)	2.84 (1.07)

Table 3**Means and Standard Deviations of Individual Attendance Factors for Hockey by Language Spoken**

<u>Item</u>	Sample n = 306	English n = 77	French n = 191	Bilingual n = 38
Product	2.94 (0.70)	2.79 (0.70)	3.01 (0.69)	2.89 (0.76)
Playoff Potential	2.58 (1.19)	2.14 (1.12)	2.77 (1.16)	2.53 (1.24)
Love of the Sport	4.21 (0.93)	4.32 (0.88)	4.18 (0.90)	4.16 (1.15)
Star Player(s) on Home Team	2.73 (1.12)	2.55 (1.15)	3.10 (1.06)	2.79 (1.34)
History of the Team	3.32 (1.35)	3.36 (1.39)	3.30 (1.35)	3.39 (1.26)
Starting Time of Game	2.51 (1.31)	2.34 (1.27)	2.64 (1.31)	2.22 (1.33)
Division Standing	2.87 (1.07)	2.47 (1.05)	3.09 (1.02)	2.61 (1.10)
Star Player(s) on Visiting Team	2.82 (1.26)	3.10 (1.28)	2.79 (1.22)	2.55 (1.29)
Home Team Offensive Performance	2.87 (1.09)	2.45 (1.10)	3.04 (1.01)	2.92 (1.24)
Player Appeal	2.91 (1.13)	2.84 (1.21)	2.94 (1.08)	2.89 (1.20)
Home Team Defensive Performance	2.89 (1.13)	2.56 (1.23)	2.96 (1.04)	3.18 (1.25)
Tough-Aggressive Play	2.77 (1.17)	2.78 (1.34)	2.78 (1.10)	2.68 (1.16)
Home Team Quality	2.98 (1.19)	2.66 (1.23)	3.06 (1.14)	3.18 (1.27)
Visiting Team Quality	3.32 (1.16)	3.29 (1.30)	3.33 (1.14)	3.36 (0.99)
Home Team Won-Loss Record	2.78 (1.17)	2.52 (1.07)	2.93 (1.15)	2.55 (1.37)
Price	2.09 (0.86)	1.88 (0.84)	2.14 (0.90)	2.24 (0.87)
Ticket Price	2.65 (1.35)	2.48 (1.35)	2.69 (1.36)	2.81 (1.35)
Price of Souvenirs	1.79 (1.12)	1.65 (0.93)	1.81 (1.15)	2.03 (1.32)
Price of Concessions	1.96 (1.18)	1.75 (1.02)	2.02 (1.21)	2.11 (1.31)
Price of Parking	2.14 (1.31)	1.81 (1.14)	2.27 (1.36)	2.18 (1.27)
Place	2.33 (0.84)	2.16 (0.82)	2.40 (0.84)	2.34 (0.83)
Parking Availability	2.31 (1.29)	2.05 (1.23)	2.47 (1.33)	2.08 (1.15)
Television Coverage of Game	2.34 (1.28)	2.19 (1.27)	2.39 (1.28)	2.37 (1.34)
Music	2.19 (1.19)	1.86 (1.10)	2.29 (1.20)	2.39 (1.20)
Weather	1.99 (1.19)	1.64 (0.90)	2.11 (1.28)	2.11 (1.15)
Concession Variety	2.05 (1.20)	2.04 (1.28)	2.40 (1.17)	2.08 (1.19)
Availability of Public Transportation	2.13 (1.44)	2.01 (1.46)	2.20 (1.44)	2.03 (1.36)
Distance Traveled to Match	2.48 (1.22)	2.53 (1.31)	2.53 (1.19)	2.13 (1.19)
Good Seat	3.28 (1.31)	3.11 (1.37)	3.28 (1.31)	3.66 (1.10)
Promotions	1.89 (0.81)	1.70 (0.74)	1.95 (0.81)	1.96 (0.91)
Special Promotions	1.78 (0.99)	1.61 (0.89)	1.81 (0.99)	1.97 (1.12)
Advertising	2.16 (1.21)	1.82 (1.06)	2.31 (1.27)	2.13 (1.12)
Coupon-Discount	1.81 (1.09)	1.52 (0.89)	1.89 (1.13)	1.97 (1.19)
Direct Mail & Notice	1.75 (0.99)	1.56 (0.92)	1.82 (0.99)	1.81 (1.08)
Publicity	2.10 (1.10)	2.11 (1.21)	2.32 (1.03)	2.11 (1.22)
Public Relations	2.48 (0.96)	2.25 (1.00)	2.54 (0.94)	2.60 (0.93)
Player Involvement in Community	2.21 (1.19)	1.87 (1.06)	2.33 (1.22)	2.26 (1.16)
Team Involvement in Community	2.36 (1.16)	2.05 (1.09)	2.42 (1.15)	2.68 (1.23)
Public Acceptance of Team	2.72 (1.24)	2.44 (1.39)	2.82 (1.14)	2.76 (1.32)
Public Image of Team	2.67 (1.20)	2.64 (1.33)	2.68 (1.18)	2.68 (1.02)

Table 4**Means and Standard Deviations of Individual Attendance Factors for Football by Language Spoken**

<u>Item</u>	Sample n = 275	English n = 43	French n = 197	Bilingual n = 35
Product	3.03 (0.73)	2.99 (0.77)	3.01 (0.72)	3.16 (0.74)
Playoff Potential	3.29 (1.38)	3.26 (1.33)	3.21 (1.41)	3.77 (1.22)
Love of the Sport	4.36 (0.84)	4.33 (0.89)	4.34 (0.83)	4.52 (0.83)
Star Player(s) on Home Team	3.22 (1.21)	2.79 (1.28)	3.32 (1.17)	3.17 (1.22)
History of the Team	3.09 (1.28)	3.33 (1.30)	2.97 (1.30)	3.51 (1.07)
Starting Time of Game	2.79 (1.46)	2.58 (1.50)	2.81 (1.45)	2.97 (1.51)
Division Standing	3.07 (1.16)	2.91 (1.25)	3.09 (1.14)	3.14 (1.19)
Star Player(s) on Visiting Team	1.90 (1.07)	2.23 (1.36)	1.81 (0.99)	1.94 (1.04)
Home Team Offensive Performance	3.16 (1.18)	2.95 (1.28)	3.20 (1.17)	3.17 (1.10)
Player Appeal	3.07 (1.29)	3.12 (1.25)	3.07 (1.30)	3.00 (1.33)
Home Team Defensive Performance	3.19 (1.26)	2.85 (1.42)	3.24 (1.22)	3.31 (1.26)
Tough-Aggressive Play	3.25 (1.22)	2.98 (1.28)	3.27 (1.22)	3.47 (1.16)
Home Team Quality	3.06 (1.25)	3.33 (1.15)	2.98 (1.25)	3.20 (1.37)
Visiting Team Quality	2.75 (1.20)	3.03 (1.17)	2.69 (1.20)	2.76 (1.21)
Home Team Won-Loss Record	2.76 (1.18)	2.91 (1.19)	2.72 (1.18)	2.80 (1.18)
Price	1.96 (0.86)	1.78 (0.73)	1.96 (0.87)	2.16 (0.93)
Ticket Price	2.51 (1.42)	2.10 (1.23)	2.58 (1.46)	2.63 (1.40)
Price of Souvenirs	1.67 (1.00)	1.59 (0.87)	1.65 (0.99)	1.91 (1.19)
Price of Concessions	1.99 (1.17)	1.74 (0.90)	2.01 (1.21)	2.17 (1.20)
Price of Parking	1.83 (1.10)	1.81 (1.12)	1.80 (1.08)	2.00 (1.16)
Place	2.44 (0.82)	2.30 (0.78)	2.46 (0.81)	2.49 (0.90)
Parking Availability	1.94 (1.18)	1.86 (1.20)	1.94 (1.18)	2.06 (1.19)
Television Coverage of Game	2.25 (1.35)	2.12 (1.40)	2.25 (1.33)	2.37 (1.44)
Music	2.39 (1.34)	1.98 (1.15)	2.47 (1.35)	2.44 (1.42)
Weather	2.54 (1.37)	2.42 (1.32)	2.51 (1.38)	2.86 (1.38)
Concession Variety	1.94 (1.17)	1.83 (1.14)	1.90 (1.10)	2.33 (1.16)
Availability of Public Transportation	2.49 (1.55)	2.05 (1.53)	2.60 (1.55)	2.38 (1.52)
Distance Traveled to Match	2.43 (1.31)	2.63 (1.50)	2.42 (1.28)	2.23 (1.19)
Good Seat	3.51 (1.27)	3.72 (1.16)	3.49 (1.28)	3.40 (1.36)
Promotions	1.97 (0.91)	1.80 (0.92)	1.98 (0.88)	2.16 (1.02)
Special Promotions	1.96 (1.20)	1.65 (0.95)	1.98 (1.22)	2.18 (1.34)
Advertising	2.13 (1.21)	1.91 (1.21)	2.14 (1.17)	2.35 (1.39)
Coupon-Discount	1.69 (1.08)	1.55 (1.02)	1.68 (1.07)	1.94 (1.21)
Direct Mail & Notice	1.95 (1.18)	1.80 (1.23)	1.95 (1.16)	2.09 (1.22)
Publicity	2.25 (1.14)	2.26 (1.19)	2.22 (1.15)	2.37 (1.09)
Public Relations	3.12 (1.07)	2.91 (1.06)	3.17 (1.05)	3.11 (1.17)
Player Involvement in Community	3.11 (1.41)	2.67 (1.43)	3.19 (1.39)	3.20 (1.43)
Team Involvement in Community	3.03 (1.29)	2.74 (1.16)	3.11 (1.30)	2.91 (1.40)
Public Acceptance of Team	3.20 (1.27)	3.07 (1.30)	3.24 (1.26)	3.14 (1.31)
Public Image of Team	3.23 (1.34)	3.14 (1.28)	3.25 (1.36)	3.17 (1.29)

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for the Demographic Variables of the Overall Study Sample
(*n* = 581)

<u>Variables</u>	<u>Category</u>	<u><i>n</i></u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Cumulative %</u>
Language	French	388	66.8	66.8
	English	120	20.7	87.4
	Bilingual	73	12.6	100.0
Age	< 18	29	5.0	5.0
	18 – 34	263	45.3	50.3
	35 – 54	240	41.3	91.7
	55 +	49	8.3	100.0
	Undisclosed	1	0.2	
Sex	Male	451	77.6	77.6
	Female	130	22.4	100.0
Income	< \$20,000	99	17.0	18.2
	\$20,000 - \$39,999	154	26.5	46.5
	\$40,000 - \$59,999	125	21.5	69.5
	\$60,000 - \$79,999	72	12.4	82.7
	\$80,000 - \$99,999	40	6.9	90.1
	\$100,000 +	54	9.3	100.0
	Undisclosed	37	6.4	
Education Level	Some High School	72	12.4	12.4
	High School Diploma	78	13.4	25.8
	Cegep Diploma	126	21.7	47.5
	Trade-Tech. Diploma	46	7.9	55.4
	Undergraduate degree	202	34.8	90.2
	Graduate Degree	57	9.8	100.0
Sport Attended	Hockey	306	52.7	52.7
	Football	275	47.3	100.0

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for the Demographic Variables of the Overall Study Sample by Language Group (n = 591)

<u>Variables</u>	English n = 120			French n = 388			Bilingual n = 73		
	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>C %</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>C %</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>C %</u>
Sex									
Male	90	75.0	75.0	304	78.4	78.4	57	75.6	75.6
Female	30	25.0	100.0	84	21.6	100.0	16	14.4	100.0
Age									
< 18	5	4.2	4.2	20	5.2	5.2	4	5.5	5.5
18 – 34	47	39.2	43.7	186	47.9	53.1	30	41.1	46.6
35 – 54	51	42.5	86.6	162	41.8	94.8	27	37.0	83.6
55 +	16	13.3	100.0	20	5.2	100.0	12	16.4	100.0
Undisclosed	1								
Income									
< \$20,000	19	15.8	17.8	69	17.9	18.9	11	15.1	15.5
\$20,000 - \$39,999	30	25.0	45.8	107	27.6	48.1	17	23.3	39.4
\$40,000 - \$59,999	16	13.3	60.7	89	22.9	72.4	20	27.4	67.6
\$60,000 - \$79,999	15	12.5	74.8	47	12.1	85.2	10	13.7	81.7
\$80,000 - \$99,999	12	10.0	86.0	26	6.7	92.3	2	2.7	84.5
\$100,000 +	15	12.5	100.0	28	7.2	100.0	11	15.1	100.0
Undisclosed	13			22			2		
Education Level									
Some High School	7	5.8	5.8	57	14.7	14.7	8	11.0	11.0
High School Diploma	21	17.5	23.3	49	12.6	27.3	8	10.9	21.9
Cegep Diploma	16	13.3	36.7	88	22.7	50.0	22	30.1	52.1
Trade-Tech. Diploma	7	5.8	42.5	33	8.5	58.5	6	8.2	60.3
Undergraduate	50	41.7	84.2	132	34.0	92.5	20	27.4	87.7
Graduate Degree	19	15.8	100.0	33	7.5	100.0	9	12.3	100.0

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics for the Demographic Variables for the Overall Study Sample by Sport Attended (n = 581)

<u>Variables</u>	Hockey n = 306			Football n = 275		
	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>C %</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>C %</u>
Language						
English	77	25.2	25.2	43	15.6	15.6
French	191	62.4	87.6	197	71.6	87.3
Bilingual	38	12.4	100.0	35	12.7	100.0
Age						
< 18	21	6.9	6.9	8	2.9	2.9
18 – 34	151	49.3	56.2	112	40.7	43.8
35 – 54	116	37.9	94.1	124	45.1	89.1
55 +	18	5.9	100.0	30	10.9	100.0
Undisclosed				1	0.4	
Sex						
Male	243	79.4	79.4	208	75.6	75.6
Female	63	20.6	100.0	67	24.4	100.0
Income						
< \$20,000	61	19.9	21.3	38	13.8	14.8
\$20,000 - \$39,999	82	26.8	49.8	72	26.2	42.8
\$40,000 - \$59,999	60	19.6	70.7	65	23.6	68.1
\$60,000 - \$79,999	33	10.8	82.2	39	14.2	83.3
\$80,000 - \$99,999	23	7.5	90.2	17	6.2	89.9
\$100,000 +	28	9.2	100.0	26	9.5	100.0
Undisclosed	19	6.2		18	6.5	
Education Level						
Some High School	46	15.0	15.0	26	9.5	9.5
High School Diploma	54	17.6	32.7	24	8.7	18.2
Cegep Diploma	59	19.3	52.0	67	24.4	42.5
Trade-Tech. Diploma	19	6.2	58.2	27	9.8	52.4
Undergraduate degree	95	31.0	89.2	107	38.9	91.3
Graduate Degree	33	10.8	100.0	24	8.7	100.0

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics for the Demographic Variables of Hockey Spectators by Language Group (n = 306)

<u>Variables</u>	English n = 77			French n = 191			Bilingual n = 38		
	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>C %</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>C %</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>C %</u>
Sex									
Male	62	80.5	80.5	155	81.2	81.2	26	68.4	68.4
Female	15	19.5	100.0	36	18.8	100.0	12	31.6	100.0
Age									
< 18	5	6.5	6.5	13	6.8	6.8	3	7.9	7.9
18 – 34	35	45.5	51.9	99	51.8	58.6	17	44.7	52.6
35 – 54	31	40.3	92.2	72	37.7	96.3	13	34.2	86.8
55 +	6	7.8	100.0	7	3.7	100.0	5	13.2	100.0
Income									
< \$20,000	13	16.9	18.8	40	20.9	22.2	8	21.1	21.1
\$20,000 - \$39,999	20	26.0	47.8	53	27.7	51.7	9	23.7	44.7
\$40,000 - \$59,999	11	14.3	63.8	41	21.5	74.4	8	21.1	65.8
\$60,000 - \$79,999	8	10.4	75.4	19	9.9	85.0	6	15.8	81.6
\$80,000 - \$99,999	8	10.4	87.0	14	7.3	92.8	1	2.6	84.2
\$100,000 +	9	11.7	100.0	13	6.8	100.0	6	15.8	100.0
Undisclosed	8	10.4		11	5.8				
Education Level									
Some High School	6	7.8	7.8	35	18.3	18.3	5	13.2	13.2
High School Diploma	14	18.2	26.0	33	17.3	35.6	7	18.4	31.6
Cegep Diploma	7	9.1	35.1	41	21.5	57.1	11	28.9	60.5
Trade-Tech. Diploma	5	6.5	41.6	11	5.8	62.8	3	7.9	68.4
Undergraduate	32	41.6	83.1	56	29.3	92.1	7	18.4	86.8
Graduate Degree	13	16.9	100.0	15	7.9	100.0	5	13.2	100.0

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics for the Demographic Variables of Football Spectators by Language Group (n = 275)

<u>Variables</u>	English n = 43			French n = 197			Bilingual n = 35		
	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>C %</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>C %</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>C %</u>
Sex									
Male	28	65.1	65.1	149	75.6	75.6	31	88.6	88.6
Female	15	34.9	100.0	48	24.4	100.0	4	11.4	100.0
Age									
< 18	0	0.0	0.0	7	3.6	3.6	1	2.9	2.9
18 – 34	12	27.9	28.6	87	44.2	47.7	13	37.1	40.0
35 – 54	20	46.5	76.2	90	45.7	93.4	14	40.0	80.0
55 +	10	23.3	100.0	13	6.6	100.0	7	20.0	100.0
Undisclosed	1	2.3							
Income									
< \$20,000	6	14.0	15.8	29	14.7	15.6	3	8.6	9.1
\$20,000 - \$39,999	10	23.3	42.1	54	27.4	44.6	8	22.9	33.3
\$40,000 - \$59,999	5	11.6	55.3	48	24.4	70.4	12	34.3	69.7
\$60,000 - \$79,999	7	16.3	73.7	28	14.2	85.5	4	11.4	81.8
\$80,000 - \$99,999	4	9.3	84.2	12	6.1	91.9	1	2.9	84.8
\$100,000 +	6	14.0	100.0	15	7.6	100.0	5	14.3	100.0
Undisclosed	5	11.6		11	5.6		2	5.7	
Education Level									
Some High School	1	2.3	2.3	22	11.2	11.2	3	8.6	8.6
High School Diploma	7	16.3	18.6	16	8.1	19.3	1	2.9	11.4
Cegep Diploma	9	20.9	39.5	47	23.9	43.1	11	31.4	42.9
Trade-Tech. Diploma	2	4.7	44.2	22	11.2	54.3	3	8.6	51.4
Undergraduate	18	41.9	86.0	76	38.6	92.9	13	37.1	88.6
Graduate Degree	6	14.0	100.0	14	7.1	100.0	4	11.4	100.0

Product usage rates were calculated for spectators of professional hockey and football (See Table 10) to answer research question eight. Data was collected from hockey spectators for the 2000-2001, 2001-2002, and 2002-2003 seasons. Data were collected from football spectators for the 2000, 2001, and 2002 seasons.

Data were collected on one occasion during the 2001-2002 hockey season, and once during the 2001 football season. As such, respondents were asked to project the number of games they would attend for the following season. Product usage rates segmented by language spoken are represented in Table 11 for hockey spectators and in Table 12 for football spectators. Non-user, light user, medium user, and heavy user represent attendance frequency. Mullin, Hardy, and Sutton's (2000) escalator of consumption was used as a model for attendance frequency for this study. For hockey, light users are those who reported to attend between 1 and 4 games per season; medium users reported to attend between 5 and 19 games per season; and heavy users attend 20 or more games in a season. These numbers are consistent with the classification scheme used by Mullin, Hardy, and Sutton (2000) on attendance frequencies for NBA basketball teams. As NHL and NBA seasons are of similar length, the classification was deemed appropriate for the purposes of this study. For football, a light user is someone who attends 1 game, a medium user attends between 2 and 4 games, and heavy users is someone who attends five or more games in a season. There is no reported data in the literature suggesting a suitable classification scheme for the sport of football. Therefore, to establish the attendance frequency classification for football, the researcher calculated the percentage of home football games played to home hockey games

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics of Product Usage Variables for the Overall Study Sample by Sport Attended (*n* = 581)

<u>Variables</u>	Hockey n = 306			Football n = 275		
	<u><i>n</i></u>	<u>%</u>	<u>C %</u>	<u><i>n</i></u>	<u>%</u>	<u>C %</u>
Attendance Frequency 2000 Season						
Non User	69	22.5	22.5	84	30.5	30.5
Light User	145	47.4	69.9	32	11.6	42.2
Medium User	77	25.2	95.1	42	15.3	57.5
Heavy User	15	4.9	100.0	117	42.5	100.0
Attendance Frequency 2001 Season						
Light User	177	57.8	57.8	107	38.9	38.9
Medium User	116	37.9	95.8	51	18.5	57.5
Heavy User	13	4.2	100.0	117	42.5	100.0
Respondent Projected Attendance Frequency 2002 Season						
Non User	6	2.0	2.0	3	1.1	1.1
Light User	108	35.3	37.3	22	8.0	9.1
Medium User	104	34.0	71.2	52	18.9	28.0
Heavy User	18	5.9	77.1	143	52.0	80.0
Don't Know	70	22.9	100.0	55	20.0	100.0
Season Ticket Holders						
Yes	28	9.2	9.2	123	44.7	44.7
No	278	90.8	90.8	152	55.3	100.0

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics for the Product Usage Variables of Hockey Spectators by Language Group (n = 306)

<u>Variables</u>	English n = 77			French n = 191			Bilingual n = 38		
	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>C %</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>C %</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>C %</u>
Attendance Frequency 2000 – 2001 Season									
Non User	21	27.3	27.3	42	22.0	22.0	6	15.8	15.8
Light User	31	40.3	67.5	100	52.4	74.3	14	36.8	52.6
Medium User	24	31.2	98.7	37	19.4	93.7	16	42.1	94.7
Heavy User	1	1.3	100.0	12	6.3	100.0	2	5.3	100.0
Attendance Frequency 2001 – 2002 Season									
Light User	46	59.7	59.7	111	58.1	58.1	20	52.6	52.6
Medium User	29	37.7	97.4	70	36.6	94.8	17	44.7	97.4
Heavy User	2	2.6	100.0	10	5.2	100.0	1	2.6	100.0
Respondent Projected Attendance Frequency 2002 – 2003 Season									
Non User	2	2.6	2.6	2	1.0	1.0	2	5.3	5.3
Light User	20	26.0	28.6	78	40.8	41.9	10	26.3	31.6
Medium User	28	36.4	64.9	62	32.5	74.3	14	36.8	68.4
Heavy User	3	3.9	68.8	12	6.3	80.6	3	7.9	76.3
Don't Know	24	31.2	100.0	37	19.4	100.0	9	23.7	100.0
Season Ticket Holders									
Yes	5	6.5	6.5	19	9.9	9.9	4	10.5	10.5
No	72	93.5	100.0	172	90.1	100.0	34	89.5	100.0

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics for the Product Usage Variables of Football Spectators by Language Group (n = 275)

<u>Variables</u>	English <i>n</i> = 43			French <i>n</i> = 197			Bilingual <i>n</i> = 35		
	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>C %</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>C %</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>C %</u>
Attendance Frequency 2000 Season									
Non User	12	27.9	27.9	65	33.0	33.0	7	20.0	20.0
Light User	5	11.6	39.5	22	11.2	44.2	5	14.3	34.3
Medium User	7	16.3	55.8	30	15.2	59.4	5	14.3	48.6
Heavy User	19	44.2	100.0	80	40.6	100.0	18	51.4	100.0
Attendance Frequency 2001 Season									
Light User	16	37.2	37.2	80	40.6	40.6	11	31.4	31.4
Medium User	9	20.9	58.1	36	18.3	58.9	6	17.1	48.6
Heavy User	18	41.9	100.0	81	41.1	100.0	18	51.4	100.0
Respondent Projected Attendance Frequency 2002 Season									
Non User	2	4.7	4.7	1	0.5	0.5	0	0.0	0.0
Light User	1	2.3	7.0	19	9.6	10.2	2	5.7	5.7
Medium User	11	25.6	32.6	33	16.8	26.9	8	22.9	28.6
Heavy User	19	44.2	76.7	102	51.8	78.7	22	62.9	91.4
Don't Know	10	23.3	100.0	42	21.3	100.0	3	8.6	100.0
Season Ticket Holders									
Yes	18	41.9	41.9	87	44.2	44.2	18	51.4	51.4
No	25	58.1	100.0	110	55.8	100.0	17	48.6	48.6

played, and subsequently divided the result into the accepted attendance frequency classification for hockey.

Research Questions

The first research question of this study was stated as:

1. Do significant differences exist between the demographic characteristics of English-speaking spectators of professional sport in Montreal, the demographic characteristics of French-speaking spectators of professional sport in Montreal, and the demographic characteristics of bilingual-speaking spectators of professional sport in Montreal?

Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) tests were computed to investigate the multivariate effects of spectator language spoken on four demographic variables (i.e., age, sex, education, and income) for the overall study sample, spectators of professional hockey, and spectators of professional football. Using an approximate F-statistic based on Wilks' Lambda Criteria (See Table 13), the results indicated that no significant differences exist between English, French and bilingual-speaking spectators for the overall study sample ($F = 1.921$; $p > .05$).

As represented in Table 14, the MANOVA results on the spectators of professional hockey revealed that a significant difference does exist between language spoken and the demographic variables ($F = 2.286$; $p < .05$). Tests of between-subject effects indicated that a significant difference exists between the education level of English-speaking, French-speaking, and bilingual-speaking spectators ($F = 5.090$; $p < .05$). Scheffe post-hoc analysis revealed that this

Table 13

Multivariate Analysis of Variance for Language of Respondents and Sex, Age, Education, and Income for the Overall Data Set

Multivariate F (Wilks' Lambda)	F = 1.921
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* Significant at the .05 level of confidence.

Table 14

Multivariate Analysis of Variance for Language of Respondents and Sex, Age, Education and Income for Hockey Spectators

Multivariate F (Wilks' Lambda)	F = 2.286*
--------------------------------	------------

<u>Univariate Analyses:</u>	
Sex	F = 2.267
Age	F = 0.958
Education	F = 5.090*
Income	F = 1.399

* Significant at the .05 level of confidence.

difference lies between the education level of English-speaking spectators and the education level of French-speaking spectators (See Table 15). No significant difference exists between the education level of English-speaking spectators and the education level of bilingual-speaking spectators, nor between the education level of French-speaking spectators and the education level of bilingual-speaking spectators. No significant difference exists between English, French, and bilingual-speaking spectators for sex ($F = 2.267$; $p > .05$); age ($F = 0.958$; $p > .05$); or income ($F = 1.399$; $p > .05$).

The MANOVA outcome for spectators of professional football is represented in Table 16. The results revealed that a significant difference does exist between language spoken and the demographic variables ($F = 1.989$; $p < .05$). Tests of between-subject effects revealed that a significant difference exists between the demographic profile of English-speaking football spectators, French-speaking football spectators and bilingual-speaking spectators on age of subjects ($F = 5.171$; $p < .05$). Scheffe post-hoc analysis revealed that this difference exists between the age of English-speaking spectators and the age of French-speaking spectators (See Table 17). There is no significant difference uncovered between the ages of English-speaking spectators and the ages of bilingual-speaking spectators, nor between the ages of French-speaking spectators and the ages of bilingual-speaking spectators. No significant difference exists between English, French, and bilingual-speaking spectators for sex ($F = 2.537$; $p > .05$); education ($F = 0.866$; $p > .05$); or income ($F = 1.481$; $p > .05$).

Table 15Scheffe Post Hoc Test for Table 14

<u>Dependant Variable</u>	<u>p</u>
Sex	
French – English	.926
French – Bilingual	.106
English – Bilingual	.277
Age	
French – English	.574
French – Bilingual	.543
English – Bilingual	.972
Income	
French – English	.321
French – Bilingual	.587
English – Bilingual	.989
Education	
French – English	.008* Mean difference is -.72*
French – Bilingual	.998
English – Bilingual	.103

* Significant at the .05 level of confidence

Table 16

Multivariate Analysis of Variance for Language of Respondents and Sex, Age, Education and Income for Football Spectators

Multivariate F (Wilks' Lambda)	F = 1.989*
--------------------------------	------------

Univariate Analyses:

Sex	F = 2.537
Age	F = 5.171*
Education	F = 0.866
Income	F = 1.481

* Significant at the .05 level of confidence.

Table 17Scheffe Post-Hoc Test for Table 16

<u>Dependant Variable</u>	<u>p</u>
Sex	
French – English	.364
French – Bilingual	.327
English – Bilingual	.081
Age	
French – English	.012* Mean difference is -.38*
French – Bilingual	.267
English – Bilingual	.627
Income	
French – English	.319
French – Bilingual	.580
English – Bilingual	.951
Education	
French – English	.493
French – Bilingual	.760
English – Bilingual	.953

* Significant at the .05 level of confidence

The second research question of this study was stated as:

2. Do significant differences exist between the demographic characteristics of spectators attending professional hockey games in Montreal and the demographic characteristics of spectators attending professional football games in Montreal?

MANOVA's were computed to investigate the multivariate effects of the sport attended on four demographic variables (i.e., age, sex, education, and income), for English, French and bilingual-speaking spectators

Using an approximate F-statistic based on Wilks' Lambda Criteria (See Table 18), the results of the MANOVA revealed that a significant difference exists between the demographic characteristics of hockey spectators and the demographic characteristics of football spectators for the overall study sample ($F = 4.277$; $p < .05$). Tests of between-subject effects indicated that a significant difference exists between spectators of professional hockey in Montreal and spectators of professional football in Montreal for age ($F = 10.228$; $p < .05$) and education ($F = 5.405$; $p < .05$). There is no significant difference between the sex ($F = 2.046$; $p > .05$) or income ($F = 1.458$; $p > .05$) of hockey spectators and football spectators.

A MANOVA was calculated using an approximate F-statistic based on Wilks' Lambda Criteria to find out whether there is a significant difference among the demographic traits of French-speaking spectators of professional hockey and the demographic composition of French-speaking spectators of professional football (See Table 19). The results of the MANOVA showed that a significant difference does exist between the two groups ($F = 3.518$; $p < .05$). Univariate analysis reveals

Table 18

Multivariate Analysis of Variance for Sport Attended and Sex, Age, Education and Income for English, French, and Bilingual-Speaking Spectators

Multivariate F (Wilks' Lambda)	F = 4.277*
--------------------------------	------------

Univariate Analyses:

Sex	F = 2.046
Age	F = 10.228*
Education	F = 5.405*
Income	F = 1.458

* Significant at the .05 level of confidence.

Table 19

Multivariate Analysis of Variance for Sport Attended and Sex, Age, Education and Income for French-Speaking Spectators

Multivariate F (Wilks' Lambda)	F = 3.518*
--------------------------------	------------

<u>Univariate Analyses:</u>	
Sex	F = 0.518
Age	F = 4.915*
Education	F = 6.575*
Income	F = 1.404

* Significant at the .05 level of confidence.

that the groups differ on age ($F = 4.915$; $p < .05$) and education ($F = 6.575$; $p < .05$), but not on sex ($F = 3.191$; $p > .05$) or income ($F = 1.404$; $p > .05$).

An approximate F-statistic based on Wilks' Lambda criteria was used in the calculation of a MANOVA to determine whether or not any significant differences exist between the demographic traits of English-speaking Hockey spectators and the demographic traits of English-speaking Football spectators (See Table 20). The results signify that such a difference is present ($F = 3.702$; $p < .05$). Univariate Analysis confirmed that the difference is attributed to age ($F = 8.748$; $p < .05$), but not sex ($F = 3.503$; $p > .05$), education ($F = .000$; $p > .05$), or income ($F = .532$; $p > .05$).

Using an approximate F-statistic based on Wilks' Lambda criteria, a MANOVA was computed to determine whether there is a significant difference between the demographic characteristics of bilingual-speaking hockey spectators and the demographic characteristics of bilingual-speaking football spectators (See Table 21). The results revealed that no such difference exists ($F = 1.854$; $p > .05$).

The third research question of this study was stated as:

3. Do significant differences exist between the reasons why English, French and bilingual-speaking individuals attend professional sporting events in Montreal?

A MANOVA was computed to examine the multivariate effects of language spoken on the five attendance variables for English, French, and bilingual-speaking spectators of professional sport using an approximate F-statistic based on Wilks' Lambda Criteria (See Table 22). The outcome of the MANOVA showed that a

Table 20

Multivariate Analysis of Variance for Sport Attended and Sex, Age, Education and Income for English-Speaking Spectators

Multivariate F (Wilks' Lambda)	F = 3.702*
--------------------------------	------------

Univariate Analyses:

Sex	F = 3.503
Age	F = 8.748*
Education	F = 0.000
Income	F = 0.532

* Significant at the .05 level of confidence.

Table 21

Multivariate Analysis of Variance for Sport Attended and Sex, Age, Education and Income for Bilingual-Speaking Spectators

Multivariate F (Wilks' Lambda)	F = 1.854
--------------------------------	-----------

* Significant at the .05 level of confidence.

Table 22Results of the Multivariate Analysis of Variance for Research Question 3

Multivariate F (Wilks' Lambda)	F = 1.83; p > .05
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significant difference does not exist between the attendance variable scores of English, French and bilingual-speaking spectators of professional hockey and professional football combined ($F = 1.83$; $p > .05$).

The fourth research question of the study was stated as:

4. Do significant differences exist in the reasons why English, French and bilingual-speaking individuals attend professional hockey games in Montreal?

A MANOVA was calculated to investigate the multivariate effects of language spoken on the five attendance variables for the spectators of Montreal Canadiens hockey games using an approximate F-statistic based on Wilks' Lambda Criteria (See Table 23). The findings of the MANOVA confirm that no significant differences exist among the attendance variable scores for English-speaking spectators of professional hockey, the attendance variable scores of French-speaking spectators of professional hockey, and the attendance variable scores of bilingual-speaking spectators of professional hockey in Montreal ($F = 1.21$; $p > .05$).

The fifth research question of the study was stated as:

5. Do significant differences exist between the reasons why English, French and bilingual-speaking individuals attend professional football games in Montreal?

A MANOVA was computed to test the multivariate effects of language spoken on the five attendance variables for spectators of Montreal Alouettes football games using an approximate F-statistic based on Wilks' Lambda Criteria (See Table 24).

The MANOVA result signified that no significant difference exists between the

Table 23

Results of the Multivariate Analysis of Variance for Research Question 4

Multivariate F (Wilks' Lambda)	F = 1.21; p > .05
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Table 24Results of the Multivariate Analysis of Variance for Research Question 5

Multivariate F (Wilks' Lambda)	F = 1.10; p > .05
--------------------------------	-------------------

attendance variable scores of English-speaking spectators of professional football in Montreal, the attendance variable scores of French-speaking spectators of professional football in Montreal, and the attendance variable scores of bilingual-speaking spectators of professional football in Montreal ($F = 1.10$; $p > .05$).

The sixth research question of the study was stated as:

6. Do significant differences exist between the reasons why spectators attend professional hockey games in Montreal and the reasons why spectators attend professional football games in Montreal?

A MANOVA was calculated determine the multivariate effects of sport attended on the five attendance variables for English, French and bilingual-speaking spectators of professional sport in Montreal using an approximate F-statistic based on Wilks' Lambda Criteria (See Table 25). The MANOVA result indicated that a significant difference does exist between the attendance variable scores of spectators of professional hockey in Montreal and the attendance variable scores of spectators of professional football in Montreal ($F = 22.28$; $p < .05$). Tests of between-subjects effects indicated that a significant difference is present between the 'public relations' score of spectators of professional hockey and the 'public relations score' of spectators of professional football ($F = 58.75$; $p < .05$). No significant difference exists between the spectators of professional hockey and the spectators of professional football for product ($F = 2.29$; $p > .05$); price ($F = 3.0$; $p > .05$); place ($F = 2.52$; $p > .05$) or; promotions ($F = 1.40$; $p > .05$).

Table 25Results of the Multivariate Analysis of Variance for Research Question 6

Multivariate F (Wilks' Lambda)	F = 22.28*
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<u>Univariate F Ratios:</u>	
Product	F = 2.29
Price	F = 3.00
Place	F = 2.52
Promotions	F = 1.40
Public Relations	F = 58.75*

* Significant at the .05 level of confidence.

The seventh research question for the study was stated as:

7. Do significant differences exist between the reasons why English-speaking spectators attend professional hockey games in Montreal and the reasons why English-speaking spectators attend professional football games in Montreal?

A MANOVA was computed to test the between-subject effects of sport attended on the five attendance variables for English-speaking spectators of professional sport in Montreal using an approximate F-statistic based on Wilks' Lambda Criteria (See Table 26). The results suggested that a significant difference does exist between the attendance variable scores of English-speaking spectators of professional hockey games in Montreal and the attendance variable scores of English-speaking spectators of professional football games in Montreal ($F = 3.52$; $p < .05$). Tests of between-subjects effects revealed that a significant difference exists between English-speaking spectators of professional hockey and English-speaking spectators of professional football for the 'public relations' variable ($F = 11.39$; $p < .05$). No significant differences exist between English-speaking spectators of professional hockey and English-speaking spectators of professional football for product ($F = 2.16$; $p > .05$), price ($F = 0.46$; $p > .05$), place ($F = 0.89$; $p > .05$), and promotions ($F = 0.46$; $p > .05$).

Table 26**Results of the Multivariate Analysis of Variance for Research Question 7**

Multivariate F (Wilks' Lambda)	F = 3.52*
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Univariate Analyses:

Product	F = 2.16
Price	F = 0.46
Place	F = 0.89
Promotions	F = 0.46
Public Relations	F = 11.39*

* Significant at the .05 level of confidence.

The eighth research question for the study was stated as:

8. Do significant differences exist between the reasons why French-speaking spectators attend professional hockey games in Montreal and the reasons why French-speaking spectators attend professional football games in Montreal?

A MANOVA was computed to test the multivariate effects of sport attended on the five attendance variables for French-speaking spectators of professional sport in Montreal using an approximate F-statistic based on Wilks' Lambda Criteria (See Table 27). The result revealed that a significant difference exists between the two groups for the five attendance variables ($F = 17.92$; $p < .05$). Tests of between-subjects effects showed a significant difference exists between the public relations scores of French-speaking spectators of Montreal Canadiens hockey games and the public relations scores of French-speaking spectators of Montreal Alouettes football games ($F = 38.30$; $p < .05$). No significant difference exists between spectators of professional hockey and spectators of professional football for product ($F = 0.002$; $p > .05$); price ($F = 3.78$; $p > .05$); place ($F = 0.57$; $p > .05$) or; promotions ($F = 0.08$; $p > .05$).

The ninth research question of this study was stated as:

9. Do significant differences exist between the reasons why bilingual-speaking spectators attend professional hockey games in Montreal and the reasons why bilingual-speaking spectators attend professional football games in Montreal?

Table 27Results of the Multivariate Analysis of Variance for Research Question 8

Multivariate F (Wilks' Lambda)	F = 17.92*
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Univariate Analyses:

Product	F = 0.002
Price	F = 3.78
Place	F = 0.57
Promotions	F = 0.08
Public Relations	F = 38.30*

* Significant at the .05 level of confidence.

A MANOVA was computed to test the multivariate effects of sport attended on the five attendance factors of product, price, place, promotions, and public relations for bilingual-speaking spectators of professional sport in Montreal using an approximate F-statistic based on Wilks' Lambda Criteria (See Table 28). The MANOVA result indicated that no significant difference exists between the two groups ($F = 1.59$; $p > .05$).

The tenth research question of the study was stated as:

10. What are the systematic effects of language and sport attended on the product usage frequencies of spectators?

A 2 (Sport) x 3 (Language) factorial design was computed to investigate the effects of sport attended and language spoken by spectators on attendance frequencies for three seasons of professional hockey and professional football. The factorial design enabled the researcher to study the individual main effects of sport and language on attendance frequency, as well as the interaction of each of the independent variables on the frequency of spectatorship. The advantages of using factorial designs include efficiency, control over additional variables, and the study of the interaction among dependent variables (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1998).

For each of the three seasons examined, the factorial design result indicated that the main effect of sport on attendance frequency was significant, but that the main effect of language spoken and the interaction effect of sport and language were not significant (See Table 29).

Table 28Results of the Multivariate Analysis of Variance for Research Question 9

Multivariate F (Wilks' Lambda)	F = 1.59; p > .05
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Table 29

Main and Interaction Effects of Sport (Hockey, Football) and Language (English, French, Bilingual) on Attendance Frequency.

	<u>df</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Sig.</u>
2000 – 2001 Season			
Language	2	2.47	.085
Sport	1	29.32	.000*
Language*Sport	2	0.27	.763
2001 – 2002 Season			
Language	2	0.71	.494
Sport	1	59.91	.000*
Language*Sport	2	0.44	.644
2002 – 2003 Season			
Language	2	0.86	.458
Sport	1	29.57	.000*
Language*Sport	2	1.61	.201

* Significant at the .05 level.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

According to Kotler (1997), key elements in the development of marketing plans and strategies are the identification of target markets and their characteristics, as well as the analysis of the marketing environment itself. The purpose of this study was to investigate whether significant differences exist between English, French, and bilingual-speaking spectators' motives for attending professional sporting events in Montreal, and to determine whether any differences exist between spectators of professional hockey and spectators of professional football in Montreal. This chapter contains a summary and interpretation of the results of this study along with a discussion of the implications of the findings. The chapter is presented in five sections, which include: (a) Summary and Interpretation of the Findings, (b) Conclusions, (c) Implications for Sport Management, (d) Implications for the Montreal Canadiens and Montreal Alouettes, and (e) Recommendations for Future Research.

Summary and Interpretation of the Findings

Culture accounts for a substantial part in explaining behavioral differences of consumers (McDougall, Kotler, & Armstrong, 1992). Numerous cross-cultural studies examining the behavioral differences between English and French Canadian consumers have found significant differences between the two groups (Chebat & Henault, 1974; Laroche, Saad, Kim, & Browne, 2000; Mallen, 1977; Schaninger, Bourgeois, & Buss, 1985; Thomas, 1975). However, it is important to note that

these studies have examined the differences between French-speaking consumers residing in the Province of Quebec and English-speaking consumers residing outside of the Province. In a study that examined English and French consumption differences within Montreal, Kim, Laroche, and Joy (1990) discovered that English and French Canadians in Montreal differ in certain aspects of food consumption behaviour. Bergier, Rosenblatt, and Laroche's (1980) investigation into the differences between English and French-speaking consumers in Montreal yielded the conclusion that no significant differences exist between the two groups. Although there have not been any studies conducted to examine the differences between English, French and bilingual-speaking consumption of professional sport in Canada, Quebec or Montreal, the results of this study support the conclusions of Bergier, Rosenblatt, and Laroche (1980). The result of this study found no significant differences between English, French, and bilingual-speaking consumers in their decision criteria for attending professional sport contests in Montreal. Significant differences were uncovered on the demographic characteristics of the English and French-speaking consumers of the Montreal professional sport consumers.

Consumer behaviour and sport scholars promote the position that many factors impact on spectators' decisions to attend professional sporting events (Bryan, 1993; DeSchrive, 1999; Hansen & Gauthier, 1989; Jones, Ferguson, & Stewart, 1993; McDonald & Rascher, 2000; Wall & Myers, 1989; Welki & Zlatoper, 1999; Zhang, Smith, Pease, & Mahar, 1995). The literature on consumer behavior and sport also suggests that spectators decide to attend different professional sport

contests (i.e. hockey vs. football) for different reasons (Green, 1995; Hansen & Gauthier, 1989). Based on the results of this study, it was concluded by the researcher that a significant difference exists between consumers of professional hockey and consumers of professional football in Montreal on one attendance variable.

To investigate the study problem, the researcher developed ten research questions that examined four different aspects of sport consumption. The four sections were: (i) Demographic Differences Between Groups; (ii) Language and Sport Consumption; (iii) Consumption Differences Between Sports; and (iv) Effects of Language and Sport on Attendance. Each of the sections is examined in turn below.

Demographic Differences Between Groups

Demographic data were gathered on the subjects for age, sex, annual income, and highest level of education attained. Demographic information enables sport marketers to identify common characteristics among respondents and to segment them accordingly. According to Pitts, Fielding, and Miller (1994), the principal rationale for market segmentation is to formulate competitive strategies. Huggins (1992) believed that market research is essential because it provides marketing managers of a sport with the information and knowledge to best serve its existing patron base as well as attract new spectators. Market research improves the flow of communication between an organization and its target markets, helps target and attract sponsors and facilitates decision making processes and marketing plan development (Shilbury, Quick, & Westerbeek; 1998).

Research questions one and two examined whether significant differences exist in the demographic characteristics (i.e., age, sex, education, and income) of spectators of professional sport contests in Montreal. Research question number one investigated whether there were significant differences between the demographic characteristics of English, French and bilingual speaking spectators for the overall study population, spectators of Montreal Canadiens hockey games, and spectators of Montreal Alouettes football games. Research question number two examined whether there were significant differences between the demographic characteristics of Montreal Canadiens spectators and Montreal Alouettes spectators for the overall study sample, English spectators, French spectators and bilingual spectators.

Based on the results of the study, the researcher concluded that significant differences exist between groups for both professional hockey and professional football. English spectators at Montreal Canadiens hockey games reported a higher level of education than did French-speaking spectators at Canadiens hockey games. No differences were found between groups on any of the other variables examined for hockey spectators. The results suggest that English spectators attending Montreal Alouettes football games are older than French football fans in attendance at the same games. No differences were discovered between groups for any of the other demographic variables that were collected from Alouettes spectators.

One possible explanation for why no significant differences were found between the demographic characteristics of English, French and bilingual spectators

overall, yet differences were found between the groups when the sports were isolated, is because it may not be good practice to combine data from two separate study populations for two separate sports. Although hockey and football are both sports that are played within Montreal, combining the survey results to obtain an overall picture of the sports market in the city may not be practical.

Of the four demographic variables (i.e., sex, age, education, income) examined in this study, education level was the only one to be identified as a source of difference between the language groups of spectators at Montreal Canadiens hockey games. In all, 58.5 percent of English spectators reported to have attained at least the undergraduate level of study, whereas 37.2 percent of French respondents stated the same. This finding is consistent with the statistics on the education level of the adult populations of Quebec's principal cultural communities as reported by the Ministry of Education in Quebec (1999). Utilizing unpublished 1996 Canadian Census data, the Quebec Government reported that 31.0 per cent of persons in the English community had attained the University level of study, while 18.2 per cent of French community respondents reached the same level ("Education Level," 1999).

In examining the demographic characteristics of Montreal Alouettes spectators, it was found that English spectators are significantly older than are French spectators. Nearly 70 per cent of English football fans in attendance reported to be 35 years of age or older, while just over 50 per cent of French fans reported the same. The French football market seems to be much younger statistically than is the English market.

Several possible interrelated explanations may explain why there is a reported age difference between the two groups. First of all, language legislation introduced by the Province of Quebec during the mid-1970's had a significant impact on the demographic profile of Anglophone Quebec. Bill 101, introduced by Premier Rene Levesque and the Parti Quebecois in 1976, established French as the official language of Quebec. Bill 101 limited the use of the English language in the workplace, on signs, and in the educational sector. Unsettled by such bold and sweeping changes, as well as fearing for the impact that this would have on their jobs and quality of life, many young and upwardly mobile English individuals and families fled the Province to other parts of Canada and the United States. The English-speakers that remained were those that were older and somewhat more established in their jobs or careers.

By this factor alone, it is not a surprise to find that English spectators are older than their French counterparts. However, if this were the sole reason for the age gap found between English and French Montreal Alouettes spectators, then the same result would have been observed for spectators at Montreal Canadiens hockey games, which was not the case. Other, more football specific, factors must partially explain the difference.

Traditionally a sport that was played and followed by the English population in the city, professional football abandoned Montreal in 1986. With attendance figures down and interest on the wane, the Alouettes would not return to Montreal until 1996. It may be that when the thousands upon thousands of young Anglophones fled the post-Bill 101 Province, they took along with them the market for football.

Since the return of the Alouettes to the city in Montreal, however, the team's strategy has been to market the product to the French speaking population of the Province. The strategy employed by the Alouettes was to have a core group of French-speaking players on the team that would travel on promotional tours throughout the Province. Increased marketing in the French community has resulted in an increase in the interest in, and participation of, football by the French community. Speaking on the support for, and growth of football in the Province of Quebec, former team president Larry Smith said that "it's [football] been embraced by the francophone population and that didn't exist in the 1970's...In 1997 there were 200 football teams in Quebec and now there's 350 – that's phenomenal growth" ("Showing the Love," 2002).

The combination of Bill 101, "Anglo flight," the 10-year absence of football, and increased French interest in football, are possible explanations as for why English football fans as a group are older than French football fans in Montreal.

Language and Sport Consumption

Researchers have long recognized the importance of culture as a significant influencer on the behaviour of consumers (Conway Dato-On, 2000; Hofstede, 2001; McCort & Malhotra, 1993; McCracken, 1986; McDougall, Kotler, & Armstrong, 1992; and Rokeach, 1968). In addition, language has been recognized as a prominent identifier and definer of culture as it serves as the primary means through which ideas are transferred from one mind to another (Stross, 1976; Usunier, 1996). A review of the consumer behaviour for sport literature, however, revealed that only a handful of studies have examined the sport consumption behaviour of people with

different cultural and/or ethnic profiles (Armstrong, 1998; Kwon & Trail, 2001; McCarthy, 1997). Furthermore, only McCarthy's (1997) treatment of Hispanic consumption of sport in the United States has acknowledged that the effect of language on the consumption of sport ought to be examined.

Research questions three through five of this study examined whether there were significant differences in the sport consumption behaviour of English, French, and bilingual spectators of professional sport in Montreal. Research question number three investigated the professional sport consumer in general. Research question four looked at whether there were differences between the groups for the sport of professional hockey, while research question number five examined professional football.

The results of this study prompted the researcher to conclude that no significant differences exist between the reasons why English, French, and bilingual speaking spectators attend professional sporting events in general, professional hockey, or professional football in Montreal. One possible explanation for this finding may lie in the concept of acculturation. Acculturation is the multidimensional process of acquiring the cultural traits and behaviours of another culture.

Researchers often write of acculturation as it relates to an immigrant's acquisition of a host-culture's traits (Laroche et al., 1998).

To determine how the concept of acculturation may be used to explain why there were no significant differences found between English, French, and bilingual-speaking spectators of professional sport in Montreal, it is necessary to understand

how some of the significant historical changes that have occurred in the Province of Quebec over the course of the last half century relate to acculturation.

Montreal was founded during the second half of the 17th century. For much of the time since, English and French-speaking inhabitants of the city had lived as portrayed in Hugh MacLennan's (1945) 'Two Solitudes.' On Montreal, MacLennan wrote: "Down in the angle at Montreal... Two old races and religions meet here and live their separate legends, side by side" (p. 4). Despite sharing the same city for greater than 300 years, the English and French-speaking populations in Montreal rarely mixed. In addition to the segregation brought about by the language difference, the two groups were also geographically separated. St. Lawrence Boulevard, a North-South thoroughfare transecting the city, represented the dividing line, as the English lived to the west and the French to the East.

The death of Quebec Premier Maurice Duplessis in 1959, and the subsequent election of Premier Jean Lesage in 1960, brought about significant change within the Province of Quebec for French, and by association, English society. Dubbed the "Quiet Revolution," the period between 1960 and 1976 represented a time when change on the educational and industrial fronts in the Province was massive. As a result of the Quiet Revolution, French culture became more economic and achievement oriented, less reliant on the church as an authority figure, a greater role was played by women in the labour force, and the adoption by French youth of professions associated with economic power occurred more frequently (Mallen, 1977). Mallen (1977) noted that:

The (French) culture is becoming increasingly Americanized... the French-Canadian shares with his neighbour to the South part of his world outlook, as

for example, his admiration for science and technology, his hopes with regards to living standards, his definition of comfort and of the beautiful and of the good...the French-Canadian masses are deeply Americanized in their tastes, their attitudes, their interests and their life styles (p. 50).

The change that the Quiet Revolution brought on Quebec society laid the groundwork and set the conditions that would favorably accommodate the acculturation of English and French-speaking Montrealers. With a new sense of identity and purpose, the Quebec government introduced language legislation in the 1970's that established French as the official language of Quebec. Bills 22 and 101 set regulations for the use of French in the education sector, the work place, and on all signage in the Province. This ensured that English-speaking people would be required to become more proficient with the language if they intended to remain in the Province

According to Pons, Laroche, Nyeck, and Perreault (2001), host-language use and social interaction are of central importance to the concept of acculturation. Prior to the Quiet Revolution, and the adoption of Bills 22 and 101, the English population in Montreal had little reason to use the French language or to socialize with French-speaking individuals, as French-speaking people had yet to attain the educational or professional levels of their English contemporaries. As such, the populations remained separated – two solitudes. Since 1976 and the adoption of Bill 101, however, those English-speaking Montrealers that have remained in the Province have become much more proficient in the use of the French language, and have worked side by side with French-speaking people, often in French working environments.

The present-day conditions in Montreal very much favour the adoption by English-speaking people of the behaviours and attitudes of their French-speaking counterparts. Had this study been conducted prior to the Quiet Revolution, perhaps the results would have indicated that significant differences between the groups had existed on their reasons for attending professional sporting events in the city.

Another method of analyzing acculturation as a possible explanation for why no significant differences exist between the groups is that English and French speaking sport spectators are highly acculturated to the American market. Perhaps Montrealers', irrespective of language, have adopted attitudes and behaviours towards sports that are similar to those of their neighbours to the south. Gantz and Wenner (1995) suggested that consumers who attend sporting events and consumers of broadcasted sporting events, each have similar psychological profiles, such as leisure orientation, anxiety and arousal, and team identity and image. The lack of a difference between the groups may be a result of the proliferation of American sports broadcasts on television in the Montreal market.

Consumption Differences Between Sports

Research questions six through nine examined whether there were significant differences between the five marketing mix variable scores of spectators of the Montreal Canadiens hockey team and the Montreal Alouettes football team. Question number six examined whether there were differences between the sports using the overall spectator population for both teams. Question number seven looked at whether there were differences between the reasons why English spectators attend hockey and football. Question number eight investigated the

differences between French spectators of the two sports. Question number nine examined the same problem for bilingual spectators of both clubs.

On the basis of the statistical results the researcher concluded that there is a significant difference between the public relations variable scores of spectators who attend professional hockey and spectators who attend professional football. Furthermore, it was concluded that the public relations variable is also responsible for the differences found between English hockey spectators and English football spectators, as well between French hockey spectators and French football spectators. There were no differences found in the reasons why bilingual spectators attend either hockey or football contests in Montreal.

An explanation for why the public relations variable is a greater influencer of attendance to football games in Montreal than it is for attendance to hockey games may lie in the importance that the role of public relations plays when a new team is introduced to a city, as was the case when the Alouettes returned to Montreal in 1996. Mullin, Hardy, and Sutton (2000) stated that the primary purpose of public relations activities in sport are to “convey the organizational philosophies, goals, and objectives to an identified group of publics for the purpose of establishing a relationship built upon comprehension, interest, and support” (p. 317). When a new team is introduced to a market, managers of that team must work extra hard to build a positive public image for the team. Montreal Alouettes fans reported that the public image of the team, team involvement in the community, player involvement in the community, and public acceptance of the team, had a greater impact on their decision to attend Alouettes games than did fans of the Montreal Canadiens.

Public relations activities are designed to positively affect public opinion. According to Seitel (1995) an effective public relations program seeks to either reinforce existing opinions or to persuade consumers to change their opinions. In addition to being a new team in the market, the Alouettes also had to account for the folding of the team ten years earlier, and the negative public perceptions and opinions that accompanied their departure. Perhaps, teams reentering markets where failed franchises once existed may have to pay particular attention to their public relations efforts in order to change the opinions and attitudes of consumers in the marketplace vis-à-vis their product. Therefore a team's public relations efforts and activities are of even greater importance when the team is reintroduced to a market where the product had previously failed. It would be interesting to find out whether the public relations variable influences spectators to attend CFL Ottawa Renegades home games. Like the Alouettes, the Ottawa CFL Franchise was recently reintroduced to that market after a ten-year absence.

It is important to note that the results do not suggest that the Canadiens perform poorly in their public relations activities, but rather that the Alouettes may have to pay special attention to public relations activities.

Effects of Language and Sport on Attendance Frequency

Research question number ten examined whether the language spoken by spectators and sport attended, alone and in combination, had any effects on the attendance frequencies that were reported by survey respondents. Attendance frequency data were collected for the 2000-2001, 2001-2002, and 2002-2003 hockey seasons, and for the 2000, 2001, and 2002 football season. It is important

to note that for the 2001-2002 and 2002-2003 hockey seasons, as well as the 2002 football season, respondents were asked to project the number of games they thought they would attend. As such, the data are only as accurate as was the honesty of spectator responses.

Based on the results of the study, the researcher concluded that sport attended had a significant effect on the reported attendance frequencies of spectators for each of the three seasons examined. The results of the study also revealed that no significant effects for language spoken by spectators, or the interaction of sport attended and language spoken were found on the reported attendance frequencies of spectators.

For each of the three seasons, football fans reported having significantly higher user rates than did hockey fans. For the 2000 football season 42.5 percent of Alouettes spectators reported being a heavy user of the product, whereas only 4.9 percent of Canadiens spectators reported the same for the 2000-2001 hockey season. The figures are nearly identical for the 2001 football and 2001-2002 hockey seasons. The projected attendance frequencies by spectators for the 2002 football and 2002-2003 hockey seasons also yielded similar results, as 52 percent of football spectators indicated they would be a heavy user of the product and only 5.9 percent of hockey fans indicated the same.

Despite the fact that each of the teams drew an average of approximately 20,000 fans per game over the course of the three seasons examined in the research, a significantly greater percent of football fans heavily attend Alouettes football games, than do hockey fans attend Canadiens hockey games. Possible

reasons for these findings include the different number of games played by the teams, the relative importance of a single football game as opposed to an individual hockey game on each team's chance for post-season participation, and the different percentage of season ticket holders for each team.

The differing lengths of the hockey and football schedules may be one reason for why there are different attendance frequency rates between the two teams. The Alouettes only play nine regular season home games, whereas the Canadiens play 41. A heavy user of football is classified as someone who attends five or more games throughout the season, whereas a heavy user of hockey is someone who attends in excess of 20 Canadiens games.

Several factors may inhibit a fan from attending over 20 games in a season. First of all, although it was reported that there is no significant difference for why spectators attend hockey and football games based on price, the overall costs associated with becoming a heavy user of hockey are far greater than those required for becoming a heavy football user. McPherson (1976) remarked that because sports consumers organize parts of their lives around sporting events, they are behaviorally going to invest varying amounts of time, effort and money into different types of sport participation. To become a heavy user of hockey, spectators have to invest more money on the purchase of tickets and more time in the number of games they attend.

Another reason for why the attendance frequency rates of football spectators are greater than those of hockey spectators could be based on the relative importance that a single regular football game has as opposed to that of a regular

season hockey game. As there are only 9 total regular season home football games in the CFL, the outcome of each game on a team's chances to participate in the post-season is far more important than is the outcome of a single regular season NHL game on the chances of a hockey team making its playoffs. It is possible that fans are likely to increase the frequency they attend games the more meaningful those games are. Hockey fans may feel that with the length of the schedule being so long, they can pick and choose the games they want to see without feeling as if they are missing key games.

The fact that a far greater number of football spectators reported being season ticket holders by comparison to hockey spectators may be a third reason for the difference in the attendance frequencies of spectators of both teams. In total, 44.7 percent of football fans surveyed reported to have season tickets to Alouettes games, whereas only 9.2 percent of hockey fans reported having season tickets to Canadiens games. It is important to note that the season ticket base of the Montreal Canadiens far exceeds 9.2 percent of available tickets to a game. In fact, for the 2002-2003 season the Canadiens have about 11,000 season tickets holders, or 51.7 per cent of available seats (Montreal Canadiens' sales representative, personal communication, December 12, 2002). Therefore, as this study used a stratified random sampling technique to obtain the data, other factors must explain why only a small percentage of hockey spectators attend greater than 20 games. Perhaps because there are 41 regular season hockey games, season ticket holders are unwilling or unable to make a commitment to attend all of the games. In a 1999 interview with the *Globe and Mail*, Toronto Maple Leafs president Ken Dryden

reported that the current trend is for season-ticket holders to attend fewer games, as many either sell or give their tickets away. Dryden also reported that on average, Toronto Maple Leaf season-ticket holders attended 11 of a possible 41 home games. It is possible that season ticket holders could be giving their tickets away to friends and family members, and only attending selected games.

Another potential reason for why there are higher product user rates for football than for hockey is that a significant number of season ticket subscribers are businesses or corporations, who use the tickets either as part of employee incentive programs or to court potential clients. In contrast, with only nine regular season home games to choose from, football season ticket holders may be less willing to give away their tickets. Each football game may be more valuable to Alouettes season ticket holders because of the scarcity of games.

Conclusions

The results of this study prompted the researcher to make the following conclusions:

1. English-speaking hockey spectators are more educated than French-speaking spectators.
2. No significant differences exist between the demographic characteristics of bilingual-speaking spectators at Montreal Canadiens hockey games and the demographic characteristics of either English or French-speaking spectators at Montreal Canadiens hockey games.

3. English-speaking football spectators are older than French-speaking football spectators.
4. No significant differences exist between the demographic characteristics of bilingual-speaking spectators of Montreal Alouettes football games and the demographic characteristics of either English or French-speaking spectators of Montreal Alouettes football games.
5. Montreal Alouettes spectators are older and more educated than Montreal Canadiens Spectators.
6. French-speaking football spectators are older and more educated than French-speaking hockey spectators.
7. English-speaking football spectators are older than English-speaking hockey spectators.
8. No significant differences exist between the demographic characteristics of bilingual-speaking spectators at Montreal Canadiens hockey games and the demographic characteristics of bilingual-speaking spectators at Montreal Alouettes football games.
9. There are no significant differences in the reasons why English, French, and bilingual-speaking spectators attend professional sporting events in Montreal.
10. There are no significant differences in the reasons why English, French, and bilingual-speaking spectators attend Montreal Canadiens hockey games.

11. No significant differences exist in the reasons why English, French, and bilingual-speaking spectators attend Montreal Alouettes football games.
12. There is a significant difference in the reasons why spectators attend Montreal Canadiens hockey games and the reasons why spectators attend Montreal Alouettes football games.
13. A significant difference exists in the reasons why English-speaking spectators attend Montreal Canadiens hockey games and the reasons why English-speaking spectators attend Montreal Alouettes football games.
14. A significant difference exists in the reasons why French-speaking spectators attend Montreal Canadiens hockey games and the reasons why French-speaking spectators attend Montreal Alouettes football games.
15. There are no significant differences in the reasons why bilingual-speaking spectators attend Montreal Canadiens hockey games and the reasons why bilingual-speaking spectators attend Montreal Alouettes football games.
16. There is no significant difference between the attendance frequencies of English, French and bilingual-speaking spectators at Montreal Canadiens hockey games.
17. There is no significant difference between the attendance frequencies of English, French and bilingual-speaking spectators at Montreal Alouettes football games.

18. There is a significant difference between the attendance frequencies of spectators at Montreal Canadiens hockey games and the attendance frequencies of spectators at Montreal Alouettes football games.

Implications for Sport Management

This study was designed to add to the research base that exists on consumer behaviour differences between English, French and bilingual-speaking individuals in Montreal and to add to the literature that exists on consumer behaviour and sport. The researcher also sought to begin a discussion on the consumption practices, behaviours, and differences of English, French and bilingual-speaking consumers of professional sport in Montreal. This section includes the implications of this research with regards to consumer behaviour and cultural difference for the field of sport management.

1. Despite the findings that no significant differences exist between English, French, and bilingual consumers of professional sport in Montreal, sport management researchers and practitioners alike should continue to investigate and examine the sport consumption practices of different cultural groups in order to identify potential market opportunities and increase revenue and fan interest.
2. The literature suggests that language is an important element of culture, and as such, an important element of consumer behaviour. Therefore, attention

should be given by sport marketing practitioners when developing marketing plans and strategies in linguistically diverse markets.

3. An understanding of the needs, wants, expectations, characteristics and tendencies of a sport organization's target market is crucial for the development of successful marketing plans and strategies. As sport managers compete with other sport and entertainment organizations for consumer entertainment dollars, researchers and practitioners alike should continue to conduct studies that provide them with a clear representation of their consumer base.

Implications for the Montreal Canadiens and the Montreal Alouettes

The Montreal Canadiens and Montreal Alouettes have each been a part of the professional sports landscape in Montreal for a long period of time. Included in this section are some possible implications emerging from the research related to the areas of consumer behaviour, culture, and attendance at Montreal Canadiens hockey games and Montreal Alouettes football games.

1. Since there is no difference on the marketing mix variables for why English, French and bilingual spectators attend either Canadiens or Alouettes home games, marketing managers of these teams do not need to manipulate or tailor the messages regarding these variables when developing marketing strategies targeting either of these groups.
2. The public relations variable was determined to be a more important

influencer on attendance to Alouettes football games than it was on attendance to Canadiens hockey games. Each of the teams should ensure that their public relations activities positively affect the public's attitudes, opinions, and actions towards their teams.

3. As English-speaking hockey spectators were determined to have an overall higher level of education than French-speaking hockey spectators, the Montreal Canadiens would do well to make sure that their marketing efforts reflect the cognitive level of the target audience.

Recommendations for Future Research

Based on the results of this descriptive, exploratory study, the researcher has developed the following 11 recommendations for future research:

1. Further researchers could replicate this study over a number of games to verify the results.
2. The data collected from this study can be used to examine the relationship between the SAQ variables and game attendance frequencies and sociodemographic variables.
3. Concessions and merchandise sales represent a significant source of revenue for professional sports teams. Future researchers may wish to study the consumption practices of English, French and bilingual-speaking spectators once they are at the game.

4. Results from this study indicated that there is a difference in the reasons why spectators attend Montreal Canadiens hockey games and Montreal Alouettes football games. The public relations variable was the source of this difference. A case study on the public relations activities of each team should be undertaken.
5. The majority of Montreal Canadiens hockey games are only broadcasted on French language television stations in the Montreal market. The relationship between the availability and absence of preferred language broadcasts and attendance should be examined.
6. One may undertake a content analysis of English and French print media over the course of a full season to examine whether coverage differences exist.
7. This research can be extended to examine the differences in sport consumption behaviour between Montreal and other Canadian Markets.
8. This research can be extended to examine the differences in sport consumption behaviour between Canadian NHL teams and American NHL teams.
9. A thorough segmentation analysis of spectators of Montreal Canadiens hockey games and Montreal Alouettes football games should be completed. The researcher should examine spectator demographics, psychographics, product usage, and product benefits.

10. The replication of this study for other sports and in other regions where different cultural groups coexist could be conducted to further the research on cross-cultural differences in sport consumption.
11. An examination of the effect of the proximity and coverage of National Football League games in Canada on attendance to Canadian Football League games would provide valuable information and insight to CFL marketing managers in the development of marketing plans and strategies.
12. The increased consumption by women of men's spectator sport represents a significant marketing opportunity for professional sport teams (Shank, 1999). Research should be conducted to examine the reasons why women attend Montreal Canadiens and Montreal Alouettes games.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

History of the Montreal Canadiens

The Montreal Canadiens

With 24 Stanley Cup championships, the Montreal Canadiens are the most successful hockey team of all-time. They have captured the imagines and stirred the passions of their fans, both English and French alike, for the better part of eight decades. The following section examines the rise of hockey in the Montreal area at the end of the 19th century, the birth of the Canadiens, the unsurpassed success of the franchise over the course of the 20th century, and the current state of affairs of the club.

Hockey in Montreal at the end of the 19th century

With the establishment of the first formal set of rules in 1880, the late 19th century laid witness to a rise in popularity of hockey in Montreal. In 1886 the first organized league was established. The league was named the Canadian Amateur Hockey Association (CAHA) and was comprised of five teams, three of which originated in Montreal: the Montreal Amateur Athletic Association (MAAA), the Victorias and the Dominion (Crystal). By the early 1890's, several junior age and recreation leagues were created to accommodate the rise in participation levels in the sport. The rapid growth in popularity of the sport prompted the Governor General of Canada, Lord Stanley of Preston, to donate a championship trophy to be awarded to the Canadian champions of hockey. The first recipients of Lord Stanley's Cup were the MAAA in 1893.

Originally played primarily by the English Elite of Montreal, hockey was quickly adopted by French Canadians, so much so that by 1895 Le National, the first all French team, was formed (Vigneault, 1985). Prior to this time Vigneault (1985)

reported that Francophone participation levels in hockey were much lower than their Anglophone contemporaries. The sudden increase of Francophone interest in the sport is attributed by Vigneault (1985) to the contact that French Canadians and Irishmen had in two bilingual colleges at the time. French Canadian youths learned to play the game at these colleges.

At the turn of the century the sport of hockey was flourishing in Montreal. Many new teams and leagues were established. Between 1893 and 1910 Montreal teams won the Stanley Cup 13 times. The MAAA won the trophy three times; the Montreal Victorias four times, the Montreal Shamrocks twice, and the Montreal Wanderers won the Stanley Cup on four occasions. In 1909 hockey welcomed a new team to Montreal, the Canadiens.

Les Canadiens sont-là: A dynasty is born

J. Ambrose O'Brien brought the Montreal Canadiens into existence on December 4, 1909 in a meeting at the Windsor Hotel in downtown Montreal. The Canadiens were to be a part of the newly formed National Hockey Association, a new professional league that was to compete with the rival Canadian Hockey Association. The other teams in the new league were the Montreal Wanderers, Cobalt Silver Kings, Haileybury, and the Renfrew Creamery Kings. The Canadiens were granted a team so that a rivalry could be created with the Wanderers (Mouton, 1986). With Jack Laviolette in charge of player recruitment, the Canadiens were to be the French-Canadian team of the league.

Wearing blue uniforms with a white trim, the Montreal Canadiens played their first ever game on January 5, 1910 against the Cobalt Silver Kings in front of a

crowd in excess of 3,000 at the Jubilee rink. With a line-up that included Joe Cattarinich, Jack Laviolette, Didier Pitre, Edouard 'Newsy' Lalonde, Ed Decarie, George 'Skinner' Poulin, and Arthur Bernier, the Canadiens came back from a two goal deficit with less than two minutes to play to win the game 7-6 in overtime.

Mouton (1986) stated, "that the come-from-behind rally and overtime victory set the pattern that would characterize future teams representing this unique club" (p. 26).

Despite enjoying limited success on the ice in its first few years of play, the Canadiens quickly became fan favorites around the league and at home, and could be counted on to fill the stands wherever they played (Mouton, 1985). Having discarded the blue and white uniforms for ones that were all red with a large "C" on the chest, the Canadiens were dubbed the 'Flying Frenchmen' for their fast skating and exciting play. In 1916 their fans were rewarded for their loyalty as the Habs won their first of 24 Stanley Cups against the Portland Rosebuds, taking the best of five series three games to two.

The Canadiens' second Stanley Cup win in 1924 earned them the honor of inaugurating the Forum, the new hockey facility that had been built on the corner of Atwater and Ste. Catherine Street in downtown Montreal. The Canadiens defeated the Toronto St. Pats 7-1 in that first game in front of a crowd of 8,000 people.

Originally built for the Montreal Maroons, a new rival Montreal Club, the Canadiens moved to the Forum permanently for the 1926-1927 season. When the Canadiens eventually moved from the Forum to their new home in 1996, the old building, which had undergone several renovations over the years, was known around the world as hockey's most fabled building. Fans and players alike believed that the ghosts of all

the past players inhabited the halls of the Forum and helped the Canadiens continue with their winning ways.

During the 20th century the Canadiens developed a tradition of winning by icing exciting teams replete with talented players. En route to winning another 22 Stanley Cups, both English and French fans alike would flock to the Forum to watch such players as Howie Morenz, Maurice 'Rocket' Richard, Jacques Plante, Jean Beliveau, Doug Harvey, Guy Lafleur, Larry Robinson, Patrick Roy, and many, many more. Included in the 24 total Stanley Cups were a stretch of five straight Cup wins from 1956-1960 and a streak of four in a row to close out the 1970's. The Canadiens were surprise winners of the cup in 1986 when they defeated the Calgary Flames, and again in 1993 when they triumphed over Wayne Gretzky and the Los Angeles Kings in five games.

Off the ice, the Canadiens moved in 1996 from the Forum to a new arena in the downtown core of the city. Formerly the Molson Centre, the new Bell Centre seats over 4,000 more people. The new and larger rink opened to mixed reviews by the public. Long accustomed to being close to the action, fans were critical of the distance from the upper seating sections to ice level. Fans were also disapproving of the narrow hallways, which made it difficult to navigate through the crowds during intermission and make it back to the seating sections prior to the commencement of the following period. Other fan complaints included the absence of enough washrooms at each level, as well as the lack of atmosphere during the game. Perhaps the off-ice frustrations of fans were exacerbated by what was happening on the ice.

On the ice, the Habs have not fared very well since hoisting the cup in 1993. Prior to the 2001-2002 season, in which they squeaked into the playoffs with a late charge down the stretch, the Canadiens had not qualified for the post-season in four straight years – a first for the franchise since the early 1920's! Fans were often critical of management for the seeming lack of depth and talent in the Canadiens system. Injuries were often a factor in the Habs not qualifying for the playoffs as they broke all records for number of man-games lost to injury. However, it is doubtful that even a healthy team would have met with success on the ice. The Habs woes forced changes at every level of management in the Canadiens front office, and the new regime seems to have brought success with it. The Habs are once again playing competitive hockey, and the fans are happy.

APPENDIX B

History of the Montreal Alouettes

The Montreal Alouettes

Although not as storied as hockey's Canadiens, the Alouettes have woven themselves into the fabric of Montreal's sporting history. Like a roller coaster ride, the Alouettes have enjoyed many highs (i.e., winning five Grey Cup championships), and have suffered through several lows, punctuated by the folding of the team just prior to the 1986 season. However, the rebirth of the team in 1996, and the subsequent success of the team on the field and at the gate, highlights another high point in the history of the Alouettes in Montreal.

The city of Montreal has an important place in the history of North American football. Originating from the game of rugby, one of the first ever football games played in Canada took place in 1868 between a team comprised of students from McGill University and a group of British soldiers stationed in Montreal (Thiele, 1997). That same year the Montreal Football Club became the first organized club of its kind in Canada (Currie, 1968). The game, however, more closely resembled rugby than the brand of football that is played today. As is the case in rugby, the rules of football did not allow a forward pass, thus placing a great emphasis on the skills of kicking and running. As such, games were often a low scoring affair by today's standards (Currie, 1968).

Montreal has also had a significant influence on the development of football in the United States. In 1874, McGill University drew up a new set of football rules and traveled to Boston to meet Harvard University in what became an annual contest. Despite subtle differences, the rules under which Harvard competed were similar enough to McGill's for competition to be possible. The match that took place

on May 14 of that year is thought to be the most significant for the sport in North America as it is played today (Currie, 1968). Harvard liked McGill's brand of football so much that they adopted much of McGill's rules into their own play. By 1881, the American game had evolved so much from the original McGill-Harvard contests that the annual match between the two schools was dropped.

In the early 1880's Quebec and Ontario organized rugby football unions to govern the emerging sport provincially, while the Canadian Rugby Football Union was established as the national body. The Montreal Football Club won the first national championship held by the C.R.F.U. in 1884 by defeating the Toronto Argonauts 30-0.

In 1907 the Inter-Provincial Rugby Football Union was created. Referred to as 'The Big Four,' the IRFU was comprised of the Montreal FC, Hamilton Tigers, Toronto Argonauts, and Ottawa Rough Riders. Under this format, the Montreal FC beat out their rivals for the right to meet Peterborough, the Ontario Union champions, for the national title. Montreal won the game 71-9, and in the process won their second national championship.

In 1909 Canada's Governor General, Albert George Grey, donated a trophy to be presented to the Canadian amateur rugby football champions. Costing \$48 to create, the trophy was originally to be awarded to the senior amateur hockey champions of Canada. Unfortunately for Grey, however, Sir H. Montague Allan, who was the Honorary President of the M.A.A.A, had already donated the Allan trophy for this purpose. As such the trophy was made available for football (Thiele, 1997).

Montreal's first appearance in a Grey Cup championship match occurred in 1931. With their name changed to the Winged Wheelers, the M.A.A.A. sponsored team beat the Regina RoughRiders at Molson Stadium 22-0. This was the last time that the Montreal team competed for the Grey Cup. The 1936 season was their last. According to Currie (1968), "the inroads of professionalism forced the M.A.A.A. to withdraw their support of the Montreal football club" (p. 72).

A new team replaced the Winged Wheelers the following season. Called the Montreal Indians, the team was unsuccessful and changed names several times over the course of the next few years. They became the Montreal Cubs in 1938, the Royals in 1939 and the Bulldogs in 1941 (Currie, 1968). It was not until 1946 that professional football was solidified once again in Montreal.

Purchased by Lew Hayman, Leo Dandurand and Eric Craddock at a cheap rate, the football team's name was changed to the Alouettes after a name choosing competition (Currie, 1968). With Delormier Stadium as their new home field the Alouettes were successful right from the start. They finished in a tie for first in 'The Big Four' with the Toronto Argonauts, and attracted 24,000 spectators for the ensuing championship playoff - a game that they ended up losing. Fans, however, would not have to wait long for a championship as in 1949 the team won their first Grey Cup by defeating the Calgary Stampeders 28-15.

In the 1950's the Alouettes made it to the Grey Cup final in three successive years (1954, 1955, and, 1956) only to lose out each time to the powerful Edmonton Eskimos. Notable superstars for the Alouettes during the 1950's were Sam "the

rifle" Etcheverry, "Prince" Hal Patterson, Pat Abruzzi and Red O'Quinn. During this decade the Alouettes returned to McGill's Percival Molson Stadium.

Whereas the Alouettes enjoyed success in the 1950's, the decade of the 1960's proved difficult. Having traded away their best players and fan favorites Etcheverry and Patterson, the Als did not have a winning season the entire decade.

Sam Berger's purchase of the Alouettes in 1969 ushered in a new era of success for the Alouettes. With new stars such as Sonny Wade, Terry Evanshen, and Peter Dalla Riva in the fold, the Alouettes once again reached the final in 1970 and beat the Calgary Stampeders 23-10 for their second Grey Cup victory. The success on the field continued with another championship in 1974 with a 20-7 win over the Edmonton Eskimos. It was a game that featured stars Larry Smith, Wally Buono, and "the Ordinary Superstar" Johnny Rodgers. The Alouettes added their third Grey Cup championship of the decade in 1977 in front of a record-crowd of 68,318 at Olympic Stadium. In what has become known as 'the Staple Bowl', the Alouettes once again defeated the Edmonton Eskimos, this time by a score of 41-6. The Alouettes again reached the Grey Cup finals of 1978 and 1979 but lost to the same Eskimos on each occasion in what became the first two of a string of five in a row for the Edmonton squad.

Unhappy with the state of affairs in the CFL, Sam Berger sold the Montreal Alouettes to Vancouver businessman Nelson Skalbania in March of 1981 (Cosentino, 1995). The Alouettes were in desperate need of revitalization as season ticket sales had declined from 18,000 in 1980 to 11,000 for the 1982 season. Rumors that the NFL, the major professional league in the United States,

would grant a franchise to Montreal did little to help with the perception of the CFL franchise in the city. In addition to these problems, the new owner signed several NFL stars to expensive contracts. The team failed to perform to expectations for the 1981 season and was having serious financial problems. On May 13, 1982 the Alouettes financial difficulties forced the team to fold.

That same day the CFL awarded a new franchise to a Montreal group headed by Charles Bronfman. In order to appeal to both English and French groups alike, the name of the team became the Concordes. The Concordes did not fair any better, and in 1987, they too folded. For the first time in 110 years Montreal did not have a professional football team in the city.

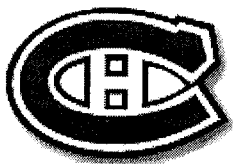
In 1994 the CFL expanded to the United States. Not having had football in the city since the NFL's Baltimore Colts moved to Indianapolis many years before, that city was awarded a CFL franchise. The Baltimore team was immediately successful, both on the field and in terms of fan support. With the league's biggest attendance, the team advanced to the Grey Cup final in its first year. The team lost the contest, but returned the following year to become the first non-Canadian city to ever win the Grey Cup.

Despite its successes, the team was no longer viable in Baltimore as the NFL had announced that the Cleveland Browns would be moving to that city. Not wanting to disband operations, owner Jim Speros saw the Montreal market as an attractive place to move his team. Professional football returned to Montreal. The new Montreal team was named the Alouettes and they began play the following year in 1996.

With home games being played out of Olympic Stadium, the Alouettes played in front of moderate crowds. In 1997, however, the Alouettes were to host a playoff match against the B.C. Lions. The rock band U2 was scheduled to play a concert at the stadium on the same night. Forced from their home, the Alouettes had to find an alternative site for the game. McGill University's Percival Molson Stadium, the Alouettes home so many years before, turned out to be the perfect solution. As feedback from Alouettes supporters indicated, the atmosphere at the smaller outdoors stadium situated on Mount Royal was much more enjoyable than it had been at Olympic Stadium. The team decided to make the McGill's Percival Molson Stadium its permanent home field beginning the following year.

The Alouettes are currently riding a high point in the city's football history. On the field the team has not had a losing record in any season since its return, and they participated in the Grey Cup final in 2000. Success on the field has been duplicated in the stands. Sold out crowds at Percival Molson Stadium is the norm, and the team has recently expanded the stadium's seating capacity to accommodate demand. Plans are also underway to increase capacity for a second time. In 2001 the city hosted the Grey Cup at Montreal's Olympic Stadium. Despite the Alouettes' absence from the championship game, a raucous crowd in excess of 65,000 attended the event. The fans were finally rewarded for their loyalty in 2002, as the Alouettes successes on the field culminated in the win of their first Grey Cup championship since 1977, and fifth overall, a 25-16 victory over the Edmonton Eskimos.

APPENDIX C**Spectator Attendance Questionnaire (SAQ)
for Hockey**



Le 27 Octobre 2001 / October 27, 2001

OBJET: SONDAGE AUPRÈS DES CLIENTS DU CLUB DE HOCKEY CANADIEN
SUBJECT : CLUB DE HOCKEY CANADIEN PATRON SURVEY

Cher amateur des Canadiens,
Dear Canadiens fan,

L'administration du Club de hockey Canadien est toujours intéressée à connaître l'opinion de ses partisans afin de pouvoir ainsi améliorer les services offerts. **Nous avons donc autorisé un groupe d'étudiants de l'Université de Windsor à procéder à un sondage auprès des spectateurs assistant au match du samedi le 27 octobre 2001.**

Si vous acceptez de participer, veuillez répondre à chacune des questions au meilleur de votre connaissance. Si vous jugez que certaines questions sont inopportunes, n'y répondez pas. Des réponses honnêtes et sincères seraient appréciées.

En guise de remerciement, nous ferons tirer 25 paires de billets par section pour le match du 8 novembre lorsque les Predators de Nashville rencontreront les Canadiens de Montréal parmi ceux et celles qui auront complété le questionnaire convenablement. Pour participer, veuillez inscrire l'emplacement de votre siège dans l'espace prévu à cette fin à la dernière page du questionnaire. Les gagnants seront avisés au 2^{ième} entracte.

Au nom des étudiants de l'Université Windsor, nous vous remercions à l'avance de votre participation.

The Club de hockey Canadien is always interested in your opinions in order to improve the services offered. **We have authorized a group of students from the University of Windsor to conduct a survey among those in attendance on October 27, 2001.**

If you agree to participate, please answer each question to the best of your knowledge. You do not have to respond to any questions that you are not comfortable with. Sincere and honest responses to questions would be greatly appreciated.

As a token of our appreciation for completing the questionnaire, we will draw 25 pairs of tickets per section for the November 8th game between the Nashville Predators and the Montréal Canadiens. To enter yourself in the draw, simply indicate your seat location in the space provided at the end of your completed questionnaire. The winners will be notified during the 2nd intermission.

On behalf of the students from the University of Windsor, we thank you in advance for your participation.

Le Club de hockey Canadien

1^{re} PARTIE: Profil du spectateur. Veuillez répondre aux questions suivantes en indiquant un ✓ dans la ☐ appropriée ou en inscrivant votre réponse dans l'espace prévu à cette fin.

SECTION 1: Spectator Profile. Please respond to the following questions by placing a ✓ in the ☐ that best applies to your situation, OR by writing your answer in the space provided.

1. Sexe Sex:
☐ Homme/Male
☐ Femme/Female

 2. Âge Age:
☐ < 18 ☐ 18-24
☐ 25-34 ☐ 35-44
☐ 45-54 ☐ 55-64
☐ 65 +

 3. Plus haut niveau de scolarité atteint
 Highest level of education attained:
☐ Études secondaires
 Some High School
☐ Diplôme d'études secondaires /
 High School Diploma
☐ Études collégiales
 Some CEGEP
☐ Diplôme d'études collégiales (DEC) /
 CEGEP Diploma
☐ Diplôme d'études professionnelles /
 Trade-Technical Diploma
☐ Études universitaires
 Some University
☐ Diplôme universitaire de premier cycle /
 Undergraduate Degree
☐ Diplôme universitaire de 2e cycle /
 Graduate Degree

 4. Langue la plus parlée à la maison
 Language most spoken at home:
☐ Français / French
☐ Anglais / English
☐ Les Deux / Both _____ % Français / French
 _____ % Anglais / English
☐ Autre / Other _____

 5. Revenu annuel moyen
 Average annual income:

<input type="checkbox"/> < \$20,000	<input type="checkbox"/> \$20,000 - \$29,999
<input type="checkbox"/> \$30,000 - \$39,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$40,000 - \$49,999
<input type="checkbox"/> \$50,000 - \$59,999	<input type="checkbox"/> \$60,000 - \$69,000
<input type="checkbox"/> \$70,000 - \$79,000	<input type="checkbox"/> \$80,000 - \$89,999
<input type="checkbox"/> \$90,000 - \$99,000	<input type="checkbox"/> \$100,000 +

 6. Quel journal quotidien lisez-vous le plus fréquemment?
 What major daily newspaper do you most frequently read?

 7. Parmi les choix suivants, lequel décrit le groupe qui vous accompagne?
 Which of the following best describes the party attending with you today?
☐ Je suis seul(e) / I am attending alone
☐ Famille / Family
☐ Collègue(s) de travail / Business Associate(s)
☐ Ami(s) / Friend(s)
☐ Coéquipier(s) / Teammate(s)
☐ Autre (spécifiez) / Other (please specify):

 8. Êtes-vous détenteur de billets de saison?
 Are you a season ticket holder?
☐ Oui / Yes
☐ Non / No

 9. Comment avez-vous été informé, en premier lieu, du match d'aujourd'hui?
 How did you first learn of today's game?
☐ Calendrier de l'équipe / Pocket schedule
☐ Journaux / Newspaper
☐ Radio
☐ Télévision / Television
☐ Bouche à oreille / Word of mouth
☐ Site Internet de l'équipe / Team's Web site
☐ Autre (spécifiez) / Other (please specify):

 10. Quand avez-vous acheté votre billet pour le match d'aujourd'hui?
 When was your ticket for today's game purchased?
☐ Aujourd'hui / Today
☐ Durant la dernière semaine / Within the last week
☐ Durant le dernier mois / Within the last month
☐ Lors de la mise en vente / When the tickets went on sale
☐ Les billets me furent donnés / The tickets were given to me

11. À combien de matchs avez-vous assisté cette saison?
How many home games have you attended this season?

12. *How many more home games do you plan to attend this season?*
 À combien de matchs à domicile avez-vous l'intention d'assister d'ici la fin de la saison actuelle.

13. À combien de matchs à domicile avez-vous assisté l'an dernier? /
How many home games did you attend last season?

14. À combien de matchs avez-vous l'intention d'assister la saison prochaine?
How many home games do you plan to attend next season?

2^e PARTIE : Information sur l'assistance. Évaluez le niveau d'influence que chacune des raisons suivantes a eu sur votre **décision d'assister au match D'AUJOURD'HUI**. Veuillez encercler votre réponse.

SECTION 2: Attendance Information. Please rate how the following reasons influenced your **decision to attend TODAY'S game**. Please circle your response.

Utilisez l'échelle suivante:

Use the following scale:

Pas du tout 1 Très peu 2 Un peu 3 Beaucoup 4 Énormément 5
 Not at all Very Little Somewhat Very much Extremely

	Pas du tout Not at all	Très peu Very little	Un peu Somewhat	Beaucoup Very much	Énormément Extremely
1. Disponibilité de stationnement dans ou près de l'établissement / Availability of parking at or near facility	1	2	3	4	5
2. Prix des billets / Ticket price	1	2	3	4	5
3. Chance de participation aux éliminatoires / Montreal's playoff potential	1	2	3	4	5
4. L'amour du hockey / Love of the sport	1	2	3	4	5
5. Prix des souvenirs / Price of souvenirs	1	2	3	4	5
6. Joueur(s) étoile(s) des Canadiens Star player(s) on Montreal's team	1	2	3	4	5
7. Promotions spéciales (ex. journée d'autographes, etc...) / Special promotions (e.g., Autograph day, etc...)	1	2	3	4	5
8. Musique / Music	1	2	3	4	5
9. Température / Weather	1	2	3	4	5
10. Publicité dans les médias / Advertising	1	2	3	4	5
11. Variété des concessions / Concession variety	1	2	3	4	5
12. Historique de l'équipe / History of the team	1	2	3	4	5
13. Coupon-rabais / Coupon-Discount	1	2	3	4	5
14. Heure du match / Starting time of game	1	2	3	4	5
15. Disponibilité du transport en commun / Availability of public transportation	1	2	3	4	5
16. Implication des joueurs dans la communauté / Player Involvement in the Community	1	2	3	4	5
17. Prix dans les concessions / Price of concessions	1	2	3	4	5

	Pas du tout Not at all	Très peu Very Little	Un peu Somewhat	Beaucoup Very Much	Enormément Extremely
18. Classement de Montréal dans leur division / Montreal's division standing	1	2	3	4	5
19. Joueur(s) étoile(s) de l'équipe adverse / Star player(s) on visiting team	1	2	3	4	5
20. Couverture télévisée / Television coverage of game	1	2	3	4	5
21. Performance de l'offensive de Montréal / Montreal's offensive performance	1	2	3	4	5
22. Attrait des joueurs / Player appeal	1	2	3	4	5
23. Performance de la défense de Montréal / Montreal's defensive performance	1	2	3	4	5
24. Implication de l'équipe dans la communauté / Team involvement in the community	1	2	3	4	5
25. Jeux agressifs / Tough-aggressive play	1	2	3	4	5
26. Courrier direct et avis / Direct mail and notice	1	2	3	4	5
27. Qualité de l'équipe qui reçoit / Home team quality	1	2	3	4	5
28. Distance à parcourir pour vous rendre au match / Distance travelled to the game	1	2	3	4	5
29. Campagne publicitaire / Publicity	1	2	3	4	5
30. Bon siège / Good seat	1	2	3	4	5
31. Qualité de l'équipe adverse / Visiting team quality	1	2	3	4	5
32. Acceptation de l'équipe par le public / Public acceptance of team	1	2	3	4	5
33. Prix de stationnement / Price of parking	1	2	3	4	5
34. Fiche des parties gagnées et perdues Montreal's won-loss record	1	2	3	4	5
35. Perception du public envers l'équipe/ Public image of the team	1	2	3	4	5

36. *En une phrase, dites nous ce qui augmenterait votre plaisir lors des matchs du Canadiens de Montréal?*
In one sentence, what would increase your enjoyment of Montreal Canadiens hockey games?

Merci d'avoir complété ce questionnaire. En guise de remerciement, nous procéderons à un tirage de 25 paires de billets par section pour le match du 8 novembre lorsque les Predators de Nashville rencontreront les Canadiens de Montréal.

Veuillez indiquer les informations suivantes:

Section # _____ Rangée # _____ Siège # _____

Thank you for completing this questionnaire. If you would like to be entered in the draw to win a pair of tickets to the November 8 game between the Nashville Predators and the Montreal Canadiens, please indicate the location of your seat in the space below. Winners will be notified during the 2nd intermission.

Section # _____ Row # _____ Seat # _____

APPENDIX D**Spectator Attendance Questionnaire (SAQ)
for Football**



Le 28 Octobre 2001 / October 28, 2001

OBJET: SONDAGE AUPRÈS DES CLIENTS DES ALOUETTES DE MONTREAL
SUBJECT : MONTREAL ALOUETTES PATRON SURVEY

Cher amateur des Alouettes,
Dear Alouettes fan,

L'administration des Alouettes de Montréal est toujours intéressée à connaître l'opinion de ses partisans afin de pouvoir ainsi améliorer les services offerts. **Nous avons donc autorisé un groupe d'étudiants de l'Université de Windsor à procéder à un sondage auprès des spectateurs assistant au match du samedi le 28 octobre 2001.**

Si vous acceptez de participer, veuillez répondre à chacune des questions au meilleur de votre connaissance. Si vous jugez que certaines questions sont inopportunes, n'y répondez pas. Des réponses honnêtes et sincères seraient appréciées.

En guise de remerciement, nous ferons tirer des souvenirs des Alouettes parmi ceux et celles qui auront complété le questionnaire convenablement. Pour participer, veuillez inscrire l'emplacement de votre siège dans l'espace prévu à cette fin à la dernière page du questionnaire. Les gagnants seront avisés entre le 3^e et le 4^e quart.

Au nom des étudiants de l'Université Windsor, nous vous remercions à l'avance de votre participation.

The Montreal Alouettes are always interested in your opinions in order to improve the services offered. **We have authorized a group of students from the University of Windsor to conduct a survey among those in attendance on October 27, 2001.**

If you agree to participate, please answer each question to the best of your knowledge. You do not have to respond to any questions that you are not comfortable with. Sincere and honest responses to questions would be greatly appreciated.

As a token of our appreciation for completing the questionnaire, we will draw Alouettes souvenirs among the participants. To enter yourself in the draw, simply indicate your seat location in the space provided at the end of your completed questionnaire. The winners will be notified between the 3rd and 4th quarters

On behalf of the students from the University of Windsor, we thank you in advance for your participation.

Montréal Alouettes Football Club

1^{re} PARTIE: Profil du spectateur. Veuillez répondre aux questions suivantes en indiquant un ✓ dans la ☐ appropriée ou en inscrivant votre réponse dans l'espace prévu à cette fin.

SECTION 1: Spectator Profile. Please respond to the following questions by placing a ✓ in the ☐ that best applies to your situation, OR by writing your answer in the space provided.

1. Sexe Sex:

- ☐ Homme/Male
☐ Femme/Female

2. Âge Age:

- ☐ < 18 ☐ 18-24
☐ 25-34 ☐ 35-44
☐ 45-54 ☐ 55-64
☐ 65 +

3. Plus haut niveau de scolarité atteint
Highest level of education attained:

- ☐ Études secondaires
Some High School
☐ Diplôme d'études secondaires /
High School Diploma
☐ Études collégiales
Some CEGEP
☐ Diplôme d'études collégiales (DEC) /
CEGEP Diploma
☐ Diplôme d'études professionnelles /
Trade-Technical Diploma
☐ Études universitaires
Some University
☐ Diplôme universitaire de premier cycle /
Undergraduate Degree
☐ Diplôme universitaire de 2e cycle /
Graduate Degree

4. Langue la plus parlée à la maison

Language most spoken at home:

- ☐ Français / French
☐ Anglais / English
☐ Les Deux / Both _____ % Français / French
_____ % Anglais / English
☐ Autre / Other _____

5. Revenu annuel moyen

Average annual income:

- ☐ < \$20,000 ☐ \$20,000 - \$29,999
☐ \$30,000 - \$39,999 ☐ \$40,000 - \$49,999
☐ \$50,000 - \$59,999 ☐ \$60,000 - \$69,000
☐ \$70,000 - \$79,000 ☐ \$80,000 - \$89,999
☐ \$90,000 - \$99,000 ☐ \$100,000 +

6. Quel journal quotidien lisez-vous le plus fréquemment?
What major daily newspaper do you most frequently read?

7. Parmi les choix suivants, lequel décrit le
groupe qui vous accompagne?
Which of the following best describes the party attending
with you today?

- ☐ Je suis seul(e) / I am attending alone
☐ Famille / Family
☐ Collègue(s) de travail / Business Associate(s)
☐ Ami(s) / Friend(s)
☐ Coéquipier(s) / Teammate(s)
☐ Autre (spécifiez) / Other (please specify):

8. Êtes-vous détenteur de billets de saison?
Are you a season ticket holder?

- ☐ Oui / Yes
☐ Non / No

9. Comment avez-vous été informé, en premier lieu, du
match d'aujourd'hui?
How did you first learn of today's game?

- ☐ Calendrier de l'équipe / Pocket schedule
☐ Journaux / Newspaper
☐ Radio
☐ Télévision / Television
☐ Bouche à oreille / Word of mouth
☐ Site Internet de l'équipe / Team's Web site
☐ Autre (spécifiez) / Other (please specify):

10. Quand avez-vous acheté votre billet pour le match
d'aujourd'hui?

When was your ticket for today's game purchased?

- ☐ Aujourd'hui / Today
☐ Durant la dernière semaine / Within the last week
☐ Durant le dernier mois / Within the last month
☐ Lors de la mise en vente / When the tickets went
on sale
☐ Les billets me furent donnés / The tickets were
given to me

11. À combien de matchs avez-vous assisté cette saison?
How many home games have you attended this season?

12. À combien de matchs à domicile avez-vous assisté l'an dernier?
How many home games did you attend last season?

13. À combien de matchs avez-vous l'intention d'assister la saison prochaine?
How many home games do you plan to attend next season?

2^e PARTIE : Information sur l'assistance. Évaluez le niveau d'influence que chacune des raisons suivantes a eu sur votre **décision d'assister au match D'AUJOURD'HUI**. Veuillez encrer votre réponse.

SECTION 2: Attendance Information. Please rate how the following reasons influenced your **decision to attend TODAY'S game**. Please circle your response.

Utilisez l'échelle suivante:

Use the following scale:

Pas du tout 1 Très peu 2 Un peu 3 Beaucoup 4 Énormément 5
 Not at all Very Little Somewhat Very much Extremely

	Pas du tout Not at all	Très peu Very little	Un peu Somewhat	Beaucoup Very much	Énormément Extremely
1. Disponibilité de stationnement dans ou près de l'établissement / Availability of parking at or near facility	1	2	3	4	5
2. Prix des billets / Ticket price	1	2	3	4	5
3. Chance de participation aux éliminatoires / Montreal's playoff potential	1	2	3	4	5
4. L'amour du football / Love of the sport	1	2	3	4	5
5. Prix des souvenirs / Price of souvenirs	1	2	3	4	5
6. Joueur(s) étoile(s) des Alouettes Star player(s) on Montreal's team	1	2	3	4	5
7. Promotions spéciales (ex. journée d'autographes, etc...) / Special promotions (e.g., Autograph day, etc...)	1	2	3	4	5
8. Musique / Music	1	2	3	4	5
9. Température / Weather	1	2	3	4	5
10. Publicité dans les médias / Advertising	1	2	3	4	5
11. Variété des concessions / Concession variety	1	2	3	4	5
12. Historique de l'équipe / History of the team	1	2	3	4	5
13. Coupon-rabais / Coupon-Discount	1	2	3	4	5
14. Heure du match / Starting time of game	1	2	3	4	5
15. Disponibilité du transport en commun / Availability of public transportation	1	2	3	4	5
16. Implication des joueurs dans la communauté / Player Involvement in the Community	1	2	3	4	5
17. Prix dans les concessions / Price of concessions	1	2	3	4	5

	Pas du tout Not at all	Très peu Very Little	Un peu Somewhat	Beaucoup Very Much	Énormément Extremely
18. Classement de Montréal dans leur division / Montreal's division standing	1	2	3	4	5
19. Joueur(s) étoile(s) de l'équipe adverse / Star player(s) on visiting team	1	2	3	4	5
20. Couverture télévisée / Television coverage of game	1	2	3	4	5
21. Performance de l'offensive de Montréal / Montreal's offensive performance	1	2	3	4	5
22. Attrait des joueurs / Player appeal	1	2	3	4	5
23. Performance de la défensive de Montréal / Montreal's defensive performance	1	2	3	4	5
24. Implication de l'équipe dans la communauté / Team involvement in the community	1	2	3	4	5
25. Jeux agressifs / Tough-aggressive play	1	2	3	4	5
26. Courrier direct et avis / Direct mail and notice	1	2	3	4	5
27. Qualité de l'équipe qui reçoit / Home team quality	1	2	3	4	5
28. Distance à parcourir pour vous rendre au match / Distance travelled to the game	1	2	3	4	5
29. Campagne publicitaire / Publicity	1	2	3	4	5
30. Bon siège / Good seat	1	2	3	4	5
31. Qualité de l'équipe adverse / Visiting team quality	1	2	3	4	5
32. Acceptation de l'équipe par le public / Public acceptance of team	1	2	3	4	5
33. Prix de stationnement / Price of parking	1	2	3	4	5
34. Fiche des parties gagnées et perdues Montreal's won-loss record	1	2	3	4	5
35. Perception du public envers l'équipe/ Public image of the team	1	2	3	4	5

36. *En une phrase, dites nous ce qui augmenterait votre plaisir lors des matchs des Alouettes de Montréal?*
In one sentence, what would increase your enjoyment of Montreal Alouettes football games?

Merci d'avoir complété ce questionnaire. Si vous désirez participer au tirage de souvenirs des Alouettes de Montréal, veuillez inscrire l'emplacement de votre siège dans l'espace prévu à cette fin. Les gagnants seront avisés entre le 3e et le 4e quart.

Section # _____ Rangée # _____ Siège # _____

Thank you for completing this questionnaire. If you would like to be entered in the draw to win a Montreal Alouettes souvenir, please indicate the location of your seat in the space below.
 Winners will be notified between the 3rd and 4th quarter.

Section # _____ Row # _____ Seat # _____

APPENDIX E

Attendance Factor Question Numbers on SAQ

Attendance Factor Question Numbers on SAQ for 5 Ps of Marketing Mix

	Question #
Product	
Playoff Potential	3
Love of the Sport	4
Star Player(s) on Home Team	6
History of the Team	12
Starting Time of Game	14
Division Standing	18
Star Player(s) on Visiting Team	19
Home Team Offensive Performance	21
Player Appeal	22
Home Team Defensive Performance	23
Tough-Aggressive Play	25
Home Team Quality	27
Visiting Team Quality	31
Home Team Won-Loss Record	34
Price	
Ticket Price	2
Price of Souvenirs	5
Price of Concessions	17
Price of Parking	33
Place	
Parking Availability	1
Television Coverage of Game	20
Music	8
Weather	9
Concession Variety	11
Availability of Public Transportation	15
Distance Traveled to Match	28
Good Seat	30
Promotions	
Special Promotions	7
Advertising	10
Coupon-Discount	13
Direct Mail & Notice	26
Publicity	29
Public Relations	
Player Involvement in Community	16
Team Involvement in Community	24
Public Acceptance of Team	32
Public Image of Team	35

APPENDIX F**Sample Letter Seeking Permission to Conduct Study**

APPENDIX G

Pilot Study Survey and Results



Le 23 septembre 2001 / September 23, 2001

OBJET : SONDAGE AUPRÈS DES CLIENTS DES EXPOS DE MONTRÉAL
SUBJECT : MONTREAL EXPOS PATRON SURVEY

Cher amateur des Expos,
Dear Expos fan,

L'administration des Expos de Montréal est toujours intéressée à connaître l'opinion de ses partisans afin de pouvoir ainsi améliorer les services offerts. **Nous avons donc autorisé un groupe d'étudiants de l'Université de Windsor à procéder à un sondage auprès des spectateurs assistant au match du dimanche, 23 septembre 2001.**

Si vous acceptez de participer, veuillez répondre à chacune des questions au meilleur de votre connaissance. Si vous jugez que certaines questions sont inopportunes, n'y répondez pas. Des réponses honnêtes et sincères seraient appréciées.

En guise de remerciement, nous ferons tirer des balles autographiées parmi ceux et celles qui auront rempli le questionnaire. Pour participer, veuillez inscrire l'emplacement de votre siège dans l'espace prévu à cette fin à la dernière page du questionnaire. Les gagnants seront avisés entre la 6^e et la 7^e manche.

Au nom des étudiants de l'Université Windsor, nous vous remercions à l'avance de votre participation.

The Montreal Expos Management is always interested in your opinions in order to improve the services offered. **We have authorized a group of students from the University of Windsor to conduct a survey among those in attendance on September 23, 2001.**

If you agree to participate, please answer each question to the best of your knowledge. You do not have to respond to any questions that you are not comfortable with. Sincere and honest responses to questions would be greatly appreciated.

As a token of our appreciation for completing the questionnaire, we will draw some autographed balls among the participants. To enter yourself in the draw, simply indicate your seat location in the space provided at the end of your completed questionnaire. The winners will be notified between the 6th and 7th inning.

On behalf of the students from the University of Windsor, we thank you in advance for your participation.

EXPOS DE MONTRÉAL, s.e.c.
MONTREAL EXPOS, L.P.

1^{re} PARTIE: Profil du spectateur. Veuillez répondre aux questions suivantes en indiquant un ✓ dans la ☐ appropriée ou en inscrivant votre réponse dans l'espace prévu à cette fin.

SECTION 1: Spectator Profile. Please respond to the following questions by placing a ✓ in the ☐ that best apply to your situation, OR by writing your answer in the space provided.

1. Sexe/Sex:

- ☐ Homme/Male
☐ Femme/Female

2. Âge/Age:

- ☐ < 18 ☐ 18-24
☐ 25-34 ☐ 35-44
☐ 45-54 ☐ 55-64
☐ 65 +

**3. Plus haut niveau de scolarité atteint /
Highest level of education attained:**

- ☐ Études secondaires
Some High School
☐ Diplôme d'études secondaires /
High School Diploma
☐ Études collégiales
Some CEGEP
☐ Diplôme d'études collégiales (DEC) /
CEGEP Diploma
☐ Diplôme d'études professionnelles /
Trade-Technical Diploma
☐ Études universitaires
Some University
☐ Diplôme universitaire de premier cycle /
Undergraduate Degree
☐ Diplôme universitaire de 2e cycle /
Graduate Degree

4. Langue la plus parlée à la maison /

Language most spoken at home:

- ☐ Français / French
☐ Anglais / English
☐ Autre / Other _____

5. Revenu annuel moyen /

Average annual income:

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> < \$20,000 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$20,000 - \$29,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$30,000 - \$39,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$40,000 - \$49,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$50,000 - \$59,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$60,000 - \$69,000 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$70,000 - \$79,000 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$80,000 - \$89,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$90,000 - \$99,000 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$100,000 + |

**6. Quel journal quotidien lisez-vous le plus fréquemment?
What major daily newspaper do you most frequently read?**

**7. Parmi les choix suivants, lequel décrit le
groupe qui vous accompagne? /
Which of the following best describes the party attending
with you today?**

- ☐ Je suis seul(e) / I am attending alone
☐ Famille / Family
☐ Collègue(s) de travail / Business Associate(s)
☐ Ami(s) / Friend(s)
☐ Coéquipier(s) / Teammate(s)
☐ Autre (spécifiez) / Other (please specify): _____

**8. Êtes-vous détenteur de billets de saison?
Are you a season ticket holder?**

- ☐ Oui / Yes
☐ Non / No

**9. Comment avez-vous été informé, en premier lieu, du
match d'aujourd'hui? /**

How did you first learn of today's game?

- ☐ Calendrier de l'équipe / Pocket schedule
☐ Journaux / Newspaper
☐ Radio
☐ Télévision / Television
☐ Bouche à oreille / Word of mouth
☐ Site Internet de l'équipe / Team's Web site
☐ Autre (spécifiez) / Other (please specify): _____

**10. Quand avez-vous acheté votre billet pour le match
d'aujourd'hui? /**

When was your ticket for today's game purchased?

- ☐ Aujourd'hui / Today
☐ Durant la dernière semaine / Within the last week
☐ Durant le dernier mois / Within the last month
☐ Lors de la mise en vente / When the tickets went
on sale
☐ Les billets me furent donnés / The tickets were
given to me

11. *À combien de matchs avez-vous assisté cette saison?*
How many home games have you attended this season?

13. *À combien de matchs à domicile avez-vous assisté l'an dernier? / How many home games did you attend last season?*

12. *How many more home games do you plan to attend this season?*
A combien de match à domicile avez-vous l'intention d'assister d'ici la fin de la saison actuelle.

14. À combien de matchs avez-vous l'intention d'assister la saison prochaine? / How many home games do you plan to attend next season?

2^e PARTIE : Information sur l'assistance. Évaluez le niveau d'influence que chacune des raisons suivantes a eu sur votre **décision d'assister au match D'AUJOURD'HUI**. Veuillez encrer votre réponse.

SECTION 2: Attendance Information. Please rate how the following reasons influenced your **decision to attend TODAY'S game**. Please circle your response.

Utilisez l'échelle suivante:

Use the following scale:

Pas du tout	Très peu	Un peu	Beaucoup	Énormément
1	2	3	4	5
Not at all	Very Little	Somewhat	Very much	Extremely

	Pas du tout Not at all	Très peu Very little	Un peu Somewhat	Beaucoup Very much	Énormément Extremely
1. Disponibilité de stationnement dans ou près de l'établissement / Availability of parking at or near facility	1	2	3	4	5
2. Prix des billets / Ticket price	1	2	3	4	5
3. Chance de participation aux éliminatoires / Montreal's playoff potential	1	2	3	4	5
4. L'amour du baseball / Love of the sport	1	2	3	4	5
5. Prix des souvenirs / Price of souvenirs	1	2	3	4	5
6. Joueur(s) étoile(s) des Expos Star player(s) on Montreal's team	1	2	3	4	5
7. Promotions spéciales (ex. journée d'autographes, etc....) / Special promotions (e.g., Autograph day, etc...)	1	2	3	4	5
8. Musique / Music	1	2	3	4	5
9. Température / Weather	1	2	3	4	5
10. Fiche des parties gagnées et perdues Montreal's won-loss record	1	2	3	4	5
11. Publicité dans les médias / Advertising	1	2	3	4	5
12. Variété des concessions / Concession variety	1	2	3	4	5
13. Historique de l'équipe / History of the team	1	2	3	4	5
14. Coupon-rabais / Coupon-Discount	1	2	3	4	5
15. Heure du match / Starting time of game	1	2	3	4	5

	Pas du tout Not at all	Très peu Very Little	Un peu Somewhat	Beaucoup Very Much	Énormement Extremely
16. Disponibilité du transport en commun / Availability of public transportation	1	2	3	4	5
17. Prix dans les concessions / Price of concessions	1	2	3	4	5
18. Classement de Montréal dans leur division / Montreal's division standing	1	2	3	4	5
19. Joueur(s) étoile(s) de l'équipe adverse / Star player(s) on visiting team	1	2	3	4	5
20. Couverture télévisée / Television coverage of game	1	2	3	4	5
21. Performance de l'offensive de Montréal / Montreal's offensive performance	1	2	3	4	5
22. Attrait des joueurs / Player appeal	1	2	3	4	5
23. Performance de la défense de Montréal / Montreal's defensive performance	1	2	3	4	5
24. Implication de l'équipe dans la communauté / Team involvement in the community	1	2	3	4	5
25. Jeux agressifs / Tough-aggressive play	1	2	3	4	5
26. Courrier direct et avis / Direct mail and notice	1	2	3	4	5
27. Qualité de l'équipe qui reçoit / Home team quality	1	2	3	4	5
28. Distance à parcourir pour vous rendre au match / Distance travelled to the game	1	2	3	4	5
29. Campagne publicitaire / Publicity	1	2	3	4	5
30. Bon siège / Good seat	1	2	3	4	5
31. Qualité de l'équipe adverse / Visiting team quality	1	2	3	4	5
32. Acceptation de l'équipe par le public / Public acceptance of team	1	2	3	4	5
33. Prix de stationnement / Price of parking	1	2	3	4	5

Merci d'avoir rempli ce questionnaire. Si vous désirez participer au tirage de _____, veuillez inscrire l'emplacement de votre siège dans l'espace prévu à cette fin. Les gagnants seront avisés entre le 3e et le 4e quart.

Section # _____ Rangée # _____ Siège # _____

Thank you for completing this questionnaire. If you would like to be entered in the draw to win a Canadiens autographed hockey puck, please indicate the location of your seat in the space below. Winners will be notified between the 2nd and 3rd period.

Section # _____ Row # _____ Seat # _____

Descriptive Statistics for the Pilot Study Demographic Variables (n = 170)

<u>Variables</u>	<u>Category</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Cumulative %</u>
Sex	Male	130	76.5	76.5
	Female	40	23.5	100.0
Language	English	47	27.6	27.6
	French	123	72.4	100.0
Age	< 25	33	19.4	19.4
	25 – 54	113	66.5	85.9
	55 +	24	14.1	100.0
Income	< \$30,000	52	30.6	30.6
	\$30,000 - \$49,000	64	37.6	68.2
	\$50,000 - \$69,000	27	15.9	84.1
	\$70,000 +	27	15.9	100.0
Education Level	Some High School	39	22.9	22.9
	High School Diploma	27	15.9	38.8
	Some CEGEP	19	11.2	50.0
	CEGEP Diploma	16	9.4	59.4
	Trade – Technical Diploma	10	5.9	65.3
	Some University	14	8.2	73.5
	Undergraduate Degree	31	18.2	91.8
	Graduate Degree	14	8.2	100.0
No. Attended This Season	Light User (1-4 games)	111	65.3	65.3
	Medium User (5-19 games)	36	21.2	86.5
	Heavy User (20+ games)	23	13.5	100.0
Season Ticket Holder	Yes	12	7.1	
	No	158	92.9	

Test of Internal Consistency for Pilot Study Attendance Variables (n=170)

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Cronbach alpha</u>
1. Product	.83
2. Price	.16
3. Place	.72
4. Promotions	.76
5. Public Relations	.64

Attendance Factor Z Scores of Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Pilot Study.
A Two-Tailed Hypothesis Test, Alpha = .05

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Factor</u>	<u>Z Score</u>
Product	Game Violence	1.27
	Love of the Sport	2.72
	Day of the Week	1.54
	Star Player(s) on Montreal's Team	4.23
	Montreal's Won/Loss Record	3.51
	History of the Team	3.51
	Starting Time of Game	3.11
	Montreal's Division Standing	4.01
	Star Player(s) on Visiting Team	3.92
	Montreal's Offensive Performance	4.73
	Player Appeal	4.45
	Montreal's Defensive Performance	4.68
	Tough-Aggressive Play	4.25
	Home Team Quality	4.53
	Visiting Team Quality	4.40
Place	Availability of Parking at or Near Facility	4.00
	Music	4.95
	Weather	5.24
	Concession Variety	5.28
	Availability of Public Transportation	5.26
	Television Coverage of Game	4.75
	Distance Traveled to Game	4.08
	Good Seat	3.04
Promotion	Special Promotions	5.38
	Advertising	9.27
	Coupon-Discount	6.06
	Direct Mail and Notice	6.89
	Publicity	5.38

*Confirmatory Factor Analysis is not run for variables with only two factors.
 Therefore "Price", and "Public Relations" could not be examined.

APPENDIX H

Research Motivations and Assumptions

Research Motivations and Assumptions

Back in September of 2000, the beginning of my studies in Human Kinetics, my intention, like the majority of my peers, was to pursue an internship. As a result of that decision, I have defended my thesis and I am now putting the final touches on this document. Allow me to explain. In the summer following my first year I had secured an internship with the Montreal Canadiens that was to begin in the fall later that same year. As the internship option requires a research component, I began to think of potential ideas.

Well an inescapable constant of growing up in Montreal, as I did, is the feeling of there being a division as well as a difference between English and French-speaking people. These differences are both a result of, as well as highlighted by: different media streams, distinct arts and entertainment outlets, separate educational streams, so called “language police”, whose job it is to ensure that the laws governing the use of the French language in Quebec are adhered to, and finally, two referendums on succession. As such, I have always had an underlying curiosity and interest in the origin and nature of those differences.

Therefore, it seemed quite natural that in order to satisfy the research component of my internship with the Canadiens, I would investigate whether there were differences between English and French-speaking spectators at Montreal Canadiens hockey games.

At about the time that this idea was percolating in my head, I had the good fortune to attend the 2001 NASSM Conference in Virginia Beach. Given the opportunity to interact with numerous academics and peers, I began to realize that

the study of cultural and linguistic differences in the consumption of sport was an area that has received little attention, and was one that would make for an interesting thesis topic. Furthermore, and to my surprise, neither of the Canadiens, Alouettes, or Expos had conducted any type of such research, and were unsure if there existed any differences between English and French-speaking spectators attending their games. As such, I broadened the scope of the research to include all three of Montreal's major professional sports teams.

At the outset of the research process I made certain assumptions on which I based this study, which included: (a) language is an important definer of culture, and that English and French-speaking Montrealers are different cultural groups; (b) the marketing mix is an appropriate concept on which to base this study and classify attendance factors; (c) the data from various sports could be combined together to obtain an overall picture of consumer behaviour for sport; and (d) the public relations function should be classified as a separate marketing mix variable.

Now that the study is complete I am able to reflect on my initial assumptions and reevaluate whether I still believe them to be true or not. Despite the finding of no significant differences between the three groups with regard to the reasons for attending professional sporting events in Montreal, I still believe my initial assumptions regarding culture and language to be true. As mentioned above, the differences felt when living in the city are too great to ignore. I view English and French-speaking Montrealers as being different cultural groups.

My assumption that the marketing mix is an appropriate concept on which to base a study such as this remains steadfast. The marketing mix is a widely used

and understood concept in the marketing domain. That researchers of consumer behaviour and sport have largely ignored its application as a tool for classifying attendance factors remains a surprise to me.

On the basis of this research, my initial assumption that the data for both hockey and football could be combined to generate an overall picture of the consumption of professional sport has changed. It is likely not prudent to combine the sports. It's like comparing apples to oranges, they may each be considered a fruit, but they are nonetheless very different from one another.

The findings of the study seem to support my initial assumption that public relations should be classified as a separate marketing mix variable. Professional sports teams receive a lot of media attention, and as such, they must actively engage in activities that place the organization in a favourable light in the eyes of both existing and potential consumers.

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